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ABSTRACT

Among the 59 papers are: "Comparisons in Performance of Adults and High School Seniors on the 1988 Tests of General Educational Development (GED)" (Baldwin, Whitney); "Research Writing" (Baskett, Garrison); "Popular Education in Latin America" (Beder); "Framework for the Study of Ethical Issues in Adult Education" (Brockett, Kasworm); "Cognition in Adulthood" (Caffarella, Loehr, Hosick); "Framework for Effective Practice in Adult Education" (Cervero); "Women's Leadership Style" (Cheng); "Some Critical Thinking about Critical Theory and Its Relevance for Adult Education Practice" (Collins, Plumb); "Using Individual Differences to Design a Typology of Learning Styles" (Conti, Fellenz); "Evaluation of Extension Noncredit Short Courses Using a Follow-Up Assignment Technique (Cooper, Shearon); "Structural Dimensions of British Attitudes toward Adult Education" (Darkenwald); "Adult Education and Autobiography" (Dawson); "Mythological Motifs of Differentiation and Individuation in an Adult Learning Group" (Dirkx); "Subject of Modern Adult Education" (Finger); "Eduard Lindeman, the Social Gospel, and Adult Education" (Fisher); "Collaborative Teaching-Learning Mode: Health Education Professors and Adult Learning Principles (Freeland); "Identifying Determinants of Commitment to Teaching and Turnover Behavior" (Grady); "Collaborative Mode, Instructor Characteristics, and Student Retention" (Graham); "Antonio Gramsci's Concept of Organic Intellectualism and the Politics of Adult Education" (Hommen); "Adult Education for Social Transformation" (Law); "Examining New Paradigms for Workplace Learning" (Marsick); "Study of the Effect of Parents' Participation in Adult Education Program on Their Children's Completion of High School" (Mason, Williams); "Assessing the Relevance of Selected Learning Objectives to Adult Education Practice in Tanzania" (Mgulambwa); "Typology of

Educator-Learner Relationships in Open Learning Programs" (Munro); "Study of Age, Gender, and Undergraduate Major as Predictors of Success in Adult Second Language Learning" (Nolan); "Adult Education and Works of the Imagination" (Pittman, Ohliger); "Culture and Learning" (Pratt); "Social Policy and Adult Education" (Quigley); "Research and Practice Trends in Education and Aging" (Rogers, Brockett); "Adult Basic Educators' Perceptions of Learning Disabilities" (Ross, Smith); "Women Speak about Their Learning Experiences in Higher Education" (Saul); "The Measurement of Cognitive Ability in Adult Basic Education" (Valentine, Ehringhaus); "Literacy Students' Perceptions of Successful Participation in Adult Education" (Van Tilburg, DuBois); "Self-Directed Career Development Has Professional and Personal Potential" (Zeph); and "Low-Readers' Perceptions of Education" (Ziegahn). (CML)

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30th Annual

Adult Education Research Conference

University of Wisconsin—Madison
Madison, Wisconsin U.S.A.
April 27-29, 1989

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30th Annual Adult Education
Research Conference

April 26-29, 1989

University of Wisconsin—Madison

Madison, Wisconsin

Editor: Chère Campbell Coggins

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225 N. Mills Street, Room 264
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April 26th, 1989

Dear AERC Conferees,

It is my pleasure to welcome you all, on behalf of the Steering Committee, to the 30th annual Adult Education Research Conference.

We are happy to have the opportunity of recognizing the contribution of the scholars who gathered here in Madison thirty years ago, their vision and their will which allowed the shaping of scholarship in adult education.

Without the formality of elaborate structures, this group has managed to insure continuity. Its dedication to adult education as a field of research, its flexibility as an organization and its openness to the challenge of understanding changing practices have become part of its tradition.

We would also like to thank the members of the Local Arrangements Committee, our Hosts, and all the presenters whose participation adds to the vitality of the Adult Education Research Conference in 1989.

On this thirtieth anniversary, we wish you had the very best conference.

Adele Chené, Chair
AERC Steering Committee

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE
Steering Committee

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Montreal, Quebec

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University of Wisconsin—Madison
Madison, Wisconsin

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Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois

Burt Sisco
University of Wyoming
Laramie, Wyoming

March 23, 1989

Welcome to the 30th Annual Adult Education Research conference (AERC). The faculty, staff and students of the Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, University of Wisconsin—Madison, as hosts of the conference, are pleased you have joined us for what we believe will be a most enlightening educational experience.

AERC's purpose is to promote the improvement of research and evaluation in adult education, and to foster professional collaboration among scholars who promote research, conduct research, and utilize research findings in the field of adult education. We hope the combination of key note speakers, presented papers, symposia and time for informal gathering and discussion enable us to accomplish these goals.

To those who have worked diligently to make this conference a success, the AERC steering committee and the Local Arrangements Committee, as especially the presenters who have come from many parts of the world to share their research, special thanks.

On behalf of all involved, welcome! We hope you enjoy not only the conference, but also the campus, its facilities and the Madison area.

Cordially,

R.D. Boyd Co-Chair	Chère C. Coggins Co-Chair	Laverne Forest Co-Chair

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THE SILENCED PARTNERS: A STUDY OF UNACKNOWLEDGED SECRETARIAL MENTORING

Donna D. Amstutz, Assistant Professor, Northern Illinois University

Abstract: Contrary to assumptions in the literature, mentoring can occur from lower to higher status individuals. Lower status secretarial mentoring and its unique characteristics are described. A more inclusive model and an expanded definition of mentoring are offered.

Introduction

Mentoring is a process of sharing skills, values, opinions, and knowledge to help adults perform various life roles. One way adults learn is through relationships with mentors; thus, mentoring has increasingly become a topic for study in adult education. Mentoring has traditionally been defined as the development of a younger, inexperienced individual by an older, more experienced person. Mentoring is usually conceptualized in two ways: as a mechanism for adult or career development. In adult development, mentoring is related to the overall development of a person's social, psychological, and career activities through a learning process. In career development, mentoring is usually tied specifically to career advancement, excluding any reference to social or personal growth.

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study is the current conceptualization of mentoring and related assumptions. Some definitions are vague and not much use in understanding the mentoring phenomena in a business setting. Other definitions suggest that mentoring can only be conducted by higher status individuals. There has been no research that questions the validity of several taken-for-granted assumptions about mentoring. These assumptions include: (1) mentoring is a uni-directional phenomena occuring from a person of higher status to a person of lower status, (2) mentoring is primarily conducted by and for males in the business setting, and (3) mentoring is conducted by the mentor for altruistic reasons.

Methodology

Unacknowledged mentoring was studied within the context of the relationships between secretaries and their supervisors in a corporate setting. An analytic inductive approach was chosen because of the exploratory nature of the research problem. The study was conducted at a large high-tech aerospace industry located in northwestern Illinois. The study consisted of interviews with 19 secretaries who were purposively selected after describing mentoring behaviors on an initial survey. The data were collected through taped one to one and one-half hour interviews. Log sheets and case files were maintained to facilitate analysis. In this study, all secretaries were female; all supervisors were male.

The constant comparative method of analysis was employed that required a continual flow between collection and analysis of data. Each interview was transcribed and coded with tentative categories. Categories were established when recurring regularities or elements of typicalness were identified in the data. This was a continuous process as the categories were established and then all new data was tested against the utility, scope, and inclusiveness of the categories. This process resulted in a description of the characteristics of unacknowledged secretarial mentoring, its contextual environment, and the stated reasons the participants conducted the mentoring. From these descriptions, the themes and conclusions emerged.

Mentoring Activities

Secretarial mentoring appeared to have four major categories: individualized communication, career development, resource identification and access, and task specific behavioral modeling. Individualized communication is the essence of the mentoring process. Secretaries described four types: caring, nuturing, buffering, and listening. The secretary/mentor initiated and maintained most of these functions.

Caring was related to personal reassurance. It was accomplished through the secretary's belief that each human being is important and needs acceptance as a person. It was not usually related to specific tasks, but was a generalized underlying belief in the mentee's personhood and ability. Secretaries were attuned to the personal interests of supervisors and their lives away from the job. They saw supervisors as whole persons, not just as people who were being paid to do a job.

Nurturing was more specific than caring and included moral support, ego stroking, encouragement and caretaking. Secretaries described the flexibility needed to deal with the idiosyncrasies of their supervisors. Secretaries reported adjusting to their supervisors' personalities, recognizing when to back off, when to prod, and when to humor them.

Secretaries reported buffering behaviors when they served as liaisons between supervisors and their subordinates. Secretaries described clarifying for the subordinates information given by the supervisor. They also provided feedback to the supervisors about how subordinates were emotionally accepting decisions or working conditions. Buffering behavior included guarding the supervisors' privacy, and monitoring the tone of the supervisors' actions and written communications. Secretaries warned the supervisor or edited out negative connotations.

Listening behaviors of the secretarial mentors provided the supervisor with a sounding board to clarify thinking before making a decision or taking action. Listening required an understanding by the secretary that others outside the relationship might not have. Both the mentor and the mentee had to actively listen in a mutual way to accomplish the objectives of the team.

Secretaries negatively or positively affected the perception that others had of their supervisors. Secretaries enhanced their supervisors' careers by anticipating the supervisors' needs, paying attention to the appearance of materials that the supervisors distributed, correcting supervisors' errors in written correspondence (particularly in budget figures and grammar), and performing work related to professional associations. These daily activities were believed to enhance the perception management held of the supervisor.

Secretaries often shared organizational and procedural knowledge with their supervisors. Some secretaries believed that they provided information that was not accessible through other mechanisms, or that they saved the supervisors considerable time in identifying and accessing resources that the supervisors needed. Secretaries did not just share knowledge upon request; they volunteered knowledge so the supervisors could perform their jobs more effectively.

The ability to model behavior was related to the secretaries' personal beliefs, work ethics and value systems. In addition to improved work performance, secretaries maintained that through their own behavior, they taught supervisors how to communicate with and effectively manage office staff.

The similarities between traditional and secretarial mentors include the control of information and access to resources that help the mentees perform their jobs more effectively. The confidentiality of the relationship is protected by both types of mentors. The exchange of communication between mentor and mentee includes listening to each other to clarify, confirm, deny or investigate. Both types of mentors encourage their mentees, an action usually founded on the mentor's genuine belief in the mentee's ability. Both types of mentors act as behavioral models for mentees. These similarities provide the justification for indentification of unacknowledged secretarial mentoring.

There are, however, significant differences. Traditional mentors appear to be more concerned with conceptualization and secretarial mentors with presentation of concepts. Traditional mentors often suggest tasks and alternatives while secretarial mentors are primarily concerned with actual task performance and are more directly involved in task implementation. Traditional mentors are usually acknowledged and are viewed as valuable assets who can significantly affect a mentee's career. Although some secretaries are viewed as valuable assets, the contributions they make to a mentee's career advancement and personal support system do not appear to be acknowledged. The traditional mentor is consciously concerned about the mentee's career, and discusses it with the mentee frequently. A secretarial mentor thinks about "making her boss look good," but does not mentor with the specific goal of developing the supervisor's career. She is less conscious about the effect her mentoring has on the career of the supervisor/mentee. In a traditional mentoring relationship, the mentee commonly adapts to the mentor's personal value system, working style, or idiosyncrasies. Conversely, in a secretarial mentoring relationship, the mentor adjusts to the mentee.

Organizational Context

The organizational context contained four factors which constrained mentoring behavior: low status of secretaries, gender discrimination, low respect for secretarial class, and communication problems. These factors also were reported as possible reasons for the general unacknowledgement of secretarial mentoring.

Secretaries speculated that their low social and organizational status related to 1) supervisors not knowing what secretaries actually do, 2) lack of recognition as professionals, 3) personal, media, and company stereotypes, 4) lack of social recognition, and 5) lack of formal education. They believed that their contributions were not recognized by management because secretarial contributions were taken for granted or not observed. Some secretaries believed that the perception of them as professionals was improving, but that, collectively, management would not recognize their contributions.

The degree of sexist practices in the secretary/supervisor relationship has remained relatively constant, according to the secretaries. A few secretaries did mention that younger supervisors were treating secretaries more as equals; but, without exception, every secretary interviewed discussed an issue that was related to gender discrimination in their work environment. Secretaries related stories of male supervisors who could not have their ego threatened, who hired secretaries based on the supervisors' concepts of beauty (not based on skills), and who had generally poor opinions of women. Secretaries believed that men transferred their personal view of women to their corporate view of women.

All secretaries reported they they knew supervisors who did not respect secretaries. Secretaries described supervisors who did not respect their ability to understand issues or who would not permit them to demonstrate their abilities. Low respect for secretaries as a class was not as prevalent as status and sexist issues. It was discussed as a detriment to the mentoring relationship when it occurred.

Secretaries believed that they could not be open and do their jobs effectively when working with supervisors who manage through intimidation. Secretaries believed they were unable to understand or assist their supervisors if they were not kept informed on current projects. Some felt that the corporation implies that the secretary is responsible for communication, but does not view the supervisor as equally responsible.

The differences between traditional and secretarial mentoring relationships may be partially explained by these contextual confinements. The confinements appear to interact to produce constraining organizational dimensions that serve to hide secretarial mentoring. Most basic is the devaluation of secretarial knowledge. Power-holders put secretaries in powerless positions because secretarial knowledge is not perceived to be important. Being structually locked into powerless positions, the secretaries' roles are devalued. Devaluing roles usually results in inequality, which is self-perpetuating since the secretaries subsequently accept and internalize the inferiority of their role. This reflects the larger societal context that views women, as a class, as unequal.

Reasons for Mentoring

Secretaries described three reasons why they mentored their supervisors: increased pay and promotion, intellectual challenge, and concern for others.

Secretaries believed that supervisors and the corporation as a whole did not recognize, through pay, the importance of their function. Secretaries tied their low pay to their gender. They frequently mentioned that they were not compensated fairly for their contributions because they were in a profession stereotyped as female. The importance secretaries placed on monetary reward was partially the impetus for their concern for promotion. They mentored their supervisor for the reward of increased pay and promotion that would accrue to them through the enhancement of their supervisors' careers.

Intellectual challenge was reported as necessary to alleviate the secretaries' boredom with relatively routine tasks. They often requested additional responsibilities in order to inject intellectual stimulation in their jobs. Secretaries who mentored reported being continual learners and perceived their job as an opportunity to gain new skills. It was this lifelong learning posture that kept many of them active and ready to assist their supervisors with duties not traditionally defined as secretarial.

Secretaries believed that, as women, they were the nurturers. Several secretaries specifically used this word to explain why they mentored their supervisors. Secretaries who talked about caring as a female function did not view it as negative. They believed it was a special attitude that women brought to the corporate setting. They reported that it helped to reduce tension and kept morale high. Caring about individuals was not only a function they performed in their role, but also a reason why they mentored.

It appears that secretaries mentor primarily for self-interest. This counters the assumption held in the literature that mentors are primarily altrusitic in nature. Secretaries translate their concern for promotion not in terms of eventually becoming equal in the secretary/supervisor relationship, but in terms of being in an unequal relationship at a higher level in the organization. Secretaries appear to be given a false sense of higher status as they are promoted. Promotion within the limits of their powerlessness is their goal. The older secretaries who express concern for additional pay, but not promotion, may realize that the oppression is too great for their contributions to be officially recognized. They are effectively silenced by the organization's structural discrimination and oppression. Their alienation from the organization is made permanent.

The learning process is inherent in all mentoring relationships. It is frequently discussed in the literature on traditional mentoring. The mentee in the traditional model accepts the learning posture as part of the context of the relationship. The mentee assumes that he or she will learn substantially from the mentor. In unacknowledged secretarial mentoring, learning is also prevalent, but it is masked by the supervisor's failure to adopt a learning posture. Mentoring in this context is clandestine, because the mentee is not open to the possibility of learning from the subordinate mentor, probably as a result of the power relationship.

Mentoring, as described in the literature, is perceived to be based on a pedagogical model of learning as a process of dispensing valued knowledge from a higher status person to a person of lower status. Unacknowledged secretarial mentors spoke repeatedly about their learning as a mutual process with their mentees. Perhaps mutual learning occurs in all mentoring relationships, but there is a significant difference in the mentor's learning posture when the mentor has lower status than the mentee. Secretarial mentors appear to be more open to learning than traditional mentors because many do not perceive that they hold valued knowledge. They assume they need to learn to assist the mentee with his need for knowledge. Traditional mentors, because of their higher status, often assume they already have the valued knowledge. Although the literature on adult education suggests that learning is a reciprocal process, it is not always practiced in that manner. Although many trainers, educators and mentors provide special knowledge to employees, students, or mentees, they often do not stand prepared to learn from them.

Conclusions

According to the literature, traditional mentors enhance the career progression of the mentees and provide significant resources to help mentees accomplish their own objectives. They function as role models. Mentors are characterized by relatively high status and are motivated by an altruistic concern for the development of others. They operate primarily from a teaching posture. This construction of the mentoring relationship is not incorrect. Mentoring does occur in this fashion from higher to lower status individuals. However, this conceptualization of mentoring is incomplete since it excludes mentoring that occurs from lower to higher status individuals. Secretarial mentoring is an alternative to the traditional mentoring system. It may replace or complement the traditional relationship. Both high status and low status mentors essentially perform the same functions of personal suport, career enhancement, resource provision, and behavior modeling. The characteristics of secretarial mentors are different as a result of the differences in status. The only way secretaries were able to contribute their knowledge was in a silent fashion--silenced first by the men who dominated the workplace and then silenced by the women themselves in order to accomplish their own objectives within the confinements of their environment.

Given the findings of this study, an expanded definition of mentoring to include low status mentoring is suggested: Mentoring is the process of sharing values and accumulated knowledge in order to help both mentor and mentee grow personally and professionally. In this definition, no assumption of status is attached to either mentor or mentee. It allows for mentoring that occurs in a lateral fashion, as has been recently suggested in the literature. The motivation of the mentor is not expressed. It leaves open the possiblity that both mentor and mentee may gain from the relationship. Finally, it emphasizes the mutuality of learning in a mentoring relationship.

This definition also allows for the possiblity of changes in the organizational structures within which secretaries are confined. It challenges the devaluation of secretaries by illuminating their current and potential contributions. It demonstrates that the maintenance of the low status of secretaries is not rational, but, rather, political. Hopefully, this definition will help to provide "the silenced partners" with a new voice by acknowledging their contributions to the success of the organizations in which they work.

Is Evaluation as a Critical and Reflexive Educative Process New Paradigm Research?

Reflections on Reason and Rowan

Paul Armstrong
London Borough of Haringey, United Kingdom

Abstract: *How can a program evaluator sponsored by the state, researching state-funded projects, remain committed to educational research for social change? Researchers have to confront their contradictory positions, and raise for discussion the political context and influence on their work. This should be an important characteristics of what might be the foundation of* transformatory research.

Introduction

The impetus for this paper came from the Kelloggs Research Exchange that followed the TransAtlantic Dialogue conference in Leeds in July 1988. A theme that emerged from the workshop, and which created a good deal of excitement, was that of 'transformative research'. At that time, the notion of transformative research was only very loosely conceptualized, if at all; its characterisation at that time was not particularly distinctive, encompassing a wide and diverse range of theories and practices. Since then there has been some attempts to further clarify what could be meant by 'transformative research'. In many ways it appears easier to say what it is not:

- it is not the same as participatory research
- it is not about the study of the powerless
- it is not about the use of traditional positivistic research methods
- it is not knowledge for its own sake. the production or reproduction of knowledge, nor theory alone; and
- it is not a neatly defined, boundaried, concrete, distinctive, unique approach to research[1].

From my understanding, 'transformative research' should build on some key features of research:

- Critical methodology
- Self-reflexiveness
- Commitment to social change
- Praxis
- Dialectical

By default such characteristics would entail a critique of traditional positivistic approaches to research, but the objective must be to contribute to social change, whether through adult education or research practices, not to spend time critiquing existing approaches to social research.

But having said that, praxis is the interplay of both theory and practice, and whilst discussions of practice-led praxis versus theory-led practice are futile, praxis does need to be progressive and dynamic (that is, dialectical). Thus, this paper does not seek to clarify and firmly establish the principles of 'transformative research'. Rather, it engages in a prefigurative task of examining what new paradigm research has previously been, and critically reflects on how my own research strategies may compare with what would be expected by new paradigm, and critical research. Given the limits on this paper. I shall focus primarily on the political nature of evaluation research.

New Paradigm Research

As long ago as 1977 a group of researchers in the United Kingdom were brought together by their shared interest in building a new approach to research. The culmination of this meeting was the publication of an edited collection of papers under the heading *Human Inquiry*[2]. This book encompasses the theory and practice of what the authors - Reason and Rowan - refer to as "new paradigm research'. This they see as an alternative approach to orthodox research, in order to do justice to the 'humanness' of all those involved in the research process. They state that their book is different, because it *does* seek to tell the reader what to do - unlike traditional methodology texts. They criticise traditional methods for being too flat, too diplomatic and lacking in energy. To begin with, Reason and Rowan felt that they should attempt to synthesize their approaches with the traditional methods, but quickly came to the conclusion that the first step must be to set up an antithesis. But - as they themselves recognized but failed to transcend - the paradox is that to be opposed to something is still to be bound by it.

Their model of research begins with what they call 'naive inquiry', which is subjective and, according to upholders of the old paradigm research traditions, contains errors, biases and prejudices, . From their perspective, research informed by naive inquiry is involved, committed, relevant, intuitive and alive. Such a perspective challenges, among other things, traditional notions of objectivity and detachment. However, they are still involved int the systematic, rigourous search for truth. This entails making clear one's own perspective - political standpoint, whilst continuing to locate research in terms of a literature search and the use of references for support. This leads on to new paradigm research, which they see as "objectively subjective'.

The book and its sequel contain a wide range of submissions and illustrations. The book concludes with a manifesto, which will provide the framework for the remainder of this paper.

Evaluation as a Political Activity

For the past two years I have been engaged in evaluation research of government-funded Youth Training Schemes (YTS), and am currently evaluating a Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) in schools in the London Borough of Haringey, also government-sponsored. The resources for the evaluation come from government funding, both directly and indirectly. The funding of evaluation, as with all research is problematic, since it raises the issue of accountability. I have discussed this issue of funding and accountability in evaluation research previously[3], making explicit my belief that evaluation research - as with all research - is always political in nature.

New Paradigm Research Manifesto[4]

New paradigm research

- is never neutral
- inevitably connects to issues of social change
- involves a reciprocal relationship between researchers and researched
- shares language and praxis
- produces active knowing and generates self-determination
- is learning through risk-taking in living and knowing
- is a tight and rigourous synthesis of subjectivity and objectivity
- shows respects for individual particularity
- is still interested in generalisation
- accepts person-in-context, utilising multi-disciplinary models of understanding
- treats people as people, and pays attention to hidden consequences of action on human beings
- has knowledge as its outcome for knowledge is power.

Drawing on House's work[5], I agree that evaluation, lacking certainty of proof or conclusiveness, is fundamentally an act of persuasion which cannot be dissociated from political beliefs or ideology. Such a view emerged with the growth of education evaluation activity in the United States, particularly after the Elementary and Secondary Act was passed by Congress in 1965, which required all Title I programmes to be evaluated. Since then there has been a flood of evaluation activities. Under the Reagan administration, the federal social program was mandated to provide evaluation, but now linked to social progress and invariably tied to government initiatives. House sees this as a new social role for research, as American education is *transformed* by so-called scientific management or Taylorism, with the return of standardised tests, teacher appraisal and the assignment of merit pay. Similar developments have been much in evidence in the UK, particularly since the first Thatcherite government came into power in 1979.

Being critically aware of this interest in control through evaluation, and having published an article critical of government intervention in youth unemployment, disguised as training programs[6], then how did I come to take responsibility for evaluating such programs? The answer to this lies in the nature of contradiction. All life is based on contradictions, not least our own. The two broad responses to engaging in evaluation research of government programs using government funding are typically [a] for those who are critical, to have nothing to do with them; or [b] for those who are less critical but more realist, to get fully involved in and become defensive of the work. There are alternative attitudes towards this kind of evaluation, which appear hypocritical, but at the same time - through critical reflection - begin to test the parameters and degree of control.

To be ideologically pure, as the British trade union movement have tried to be, initially with YTS, and more recently with Employment Training (ET) for adults, does not change the nature of power relations, but reinforces the state's awareness of their own power. Take, for example, ET in Britain. At last year's annual conference, the Trade Union Congress democratically decided not to support the government's ET initiative. Having, belatedly, decided to support YTS and other earlier initiatives, the TUC had been permitted representation on the government's instrument for delivering these training programs, the Manpower Services Commission. Renamed the Training Commission early in 1988 as a result of a government departmental restructuring, this body was responsible for delivering ET as well as YTS, so that once the TUC decided in September not to give it is support, the government set about removing its influence from the Training Commission. In effect, it abolished this body, and replaced it as part of the Department of Employment, as the Training Agency. Reconstituted, this no longer has trade union representation. But this has not prevented the ET program from being implemented. What has happened, however, is that increasingly the provision and resources is falling into the hands of private training consortia, and out of the hands of those local education authorities who - being controlled by the Left - have voted not to participate. All for good ideological reasons, but the resistance will fail to do anything other than hasten the reduction of control that local authorities have at a local level.

One therefore needs to be both self-reflexive and alert to the possibilities of incorporation, but rather than stand outside these government initiatives, one has to work within. And having taken that decision, it is surprising just how much ideological space one finds to manoeuvre in. The space is created by ambiguities and contradictions. Previously, I have spoken about these contradictions in terms of ideology[7], and for the past two years I have been experiencing them in my practice. The critique of the liberal ethos that has governed British education for the past 100 years has come from both Right and Left, but when the Right came into power in 1979, and began to attack the British education system on nearly all fronts, the Left appeared to spring to the defence of a system it had itself been critical of. In British party politics, such antitheses are inevitable. The Conservative Party's critique was, however, 'right for the wrong reasons'[8]. They presented the opportunity and resources to begin to re-examine British education and to re-shape it. Theirs was most certainly a radical and transformatory program to link education more closely with the needs of industry. The major irony is that the impetus for reshaping British education has come from the Department of Employment, not the Department of Education and Science. It is the latter that has tended to remain rather traditional, and to resort to directives to return to a previous state of affairs, through its proposals on the national curriculum, which has a traditional core, its desire to reintroduce selectivity and testing at various stages of young people's lives. The pressures on the education system from the Department of Employment are in quite a different direction - for innovation, increased flexibility, student participation and self-determination, and equal opportunities.

Certainly, the Training Agency's main motive appears to be the creation of a pliable workforce with the necessary skills that will maintain and develop the performance of Britain's capitalist economy, in an effective and efficient way. The task of the evaluator of such programs is to ensure that the resources being spent on education and training are being used effectively and economically. The evaluator has to examine the aims and objectives of the training organisations that have received the approval of and funding from the Training Agency to find out whether they are being met. Now, the objectives of the local education authority-based YTS training organisations that I have been evaluated include:

- meet the full range of individual needs and interests
- incorporate units of credit within a credit transfer system
- incorporate credible certification
- integrate fully with non-YTS vocational education and training
- develop procedures for reviewing and updating programmes
- offer rigourous control of quality
- facilitate delivery by a range of providers
- be efficient in their operation
- ensure equal opportunities for all.

None of these objectives can be objected to by the Left on ideological grounds, and they have been approved by the Training Agency. Thus, whilst the political nature of the schemes themselves is variable, certainly the ones that I have been working with have been attempting to ensure that young people are given a sound basis for not just working life, but life in general. There are no qualms about legitimating such activities.

Evaluation as a Critical Educative Activity

In terms of process, evaluation itself is not just an end in itself, of course. The training organisations are not only accountable to the Training Agency, but to the young adults with whom they work. The evaluation approached developed encourages the young adults to be critical and is part of their educative process. The whole ethos is toward student participation. Through evaluation it was found that young people did not always want to have responsibility for negotiating their own programme, for self-assessment, and for evaluating the performance of the agency. Thus, all partners in the learning process had to be sensitized as to the processual nature of evaluation as an educative activity, and not only as an outside watchdog, but an internal and coherent vehicle for program review, and - importantly - as the basis of staff development programs.

The evaluation strategy being evolved is what Reason and Rowan characterise as participatory, entailing a very close relationship between the researcher and the researched. It has been a relationship of mutual trust. The evaluation has been about action. Whilst the production of research reports are inevitable, they are not the main thrust of evaluation research. This is to inform action. Traditional notions of detachment, looking from the outside and making objective comments, have been not been so much left behind as transformed. In its stead the approach has been characterised by commitment, by all partners in the project which ensures that evaluation is an integral part of the development plan of the educational initiatives and is carried out by practitioners. In reviewing the literature on evaluation, a number of different types of evaluation were identifiable. For example, *external* evaluation, typical of much government-sponsored work, is generally summative, passing a final judgement on aspects of performance, based on 'hard' statistical data, using performance criteria such as number of trainees entering and completing the scheme, the difference between entry and exit qualifications, the number of leavers entering related employment or further education and training. A second type of evaluation is *collaborative* or *network*. In this, the partners involved in providing training schemes may co-operate together for joint review and planning procedures. A third type is *internal* or *self-evaluation*, which is institutional or organisational based, usually formative for its own development rather than for accountability to an outside agency, to satisfy themselves that they are moving towards meeting their aims and objectives. The evaluation that I have undertaken has not fallen neatly into any of these categories, but has encompassed them all, to ensure that the range of positive functions that an evaluation can provide are delivered.

Beyond New Paradigm Research

In this short paper, I have tried to indicate that the manifesto for new paradigm research is a sensible starting-point for re-thinking our evaluation activities, but although linked to social change, are not yet transformative, in the sense that the methods and strategies themselves have yet to be transformed. Awareness of political context, self-reflecting on our own role within that context, raising consciousness of issues relating to power and power structures are all important. But the methods themselves need to be transformed. It is not sufficient to recognize that research is never neutral. We need to go beyond this, to be able to manipulate this, overcoming (which Reason and Rowan have not) traditional concerns for the simplistic objectivity/subjectivity polarisation, for concerns of validity, and - in their own terms - the search for truth. The whole debate is still conceptualized in the language of ethics and scientific logic, even if the antithesis is the goal. As Rowan and Reason recognize, they are still apologetically bound by traditions, and although they pay lip-service to the notion of the dialectic, this is not adequately reflected in the way they seek to avoid rather than confront contradictions. I have, in my own practice, attempted to confront one immediate contradiction - that of being sponsored by the state to evaluate a state initiative in order to legitimate that initiative. Treading carefully through the possibilities of incorporation, it is possible to open space for ideological manoeuvres.

Footnotes

[1] Though some would have it so; even before the conference had ended, 'transformative research' was being discussed as if it existed, had a history, and defined characteristics. Shortly after the conference, I received a circular which announced that "Latinamericans are far ahead of us in transformation research ... (they) developed transformational research strategies which are both theoretically rich *and* tied to practice".

[2] Peter Reason and John Rowan (eds), *Human Inquiry: A Sourcebook of New Paradigm Research* (Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, 1981); P. Reason (ed), *Human Inquiry in Action: Developments in New Paradigm Research* (London: Sage, 1988)

[3] Paul Armstrong, 'Called to account: evaluation, accountability and objectivity' in M. Zukas (ed), *Papers from the 16th SCUTREA Annual Conference, University of Hull 1986* (Department of Adult and Continuing Education, University of Leeds, 1986); pp. 134-141

[4] This is derived from Reason and Rowan, op cit., pp. 489-491

[5] E.R.House (ed), *School Evaluation: the Politics and Process* (Berkeley: McCutchan, 1973); E.R.House (ed), *New Directions In Educational Evaluation* (Lewes: Falmer Press, 1986)

[6] Paul Armstrong, 'Youth training and the management of crisis in British capitalism' *Education with Production*, vol. 4, no. 1, October 1985; pp. 41-55

[7] Paul Armstrong, 'Radical adult education: theory and practice in Europe and the United States', paper delivered to the Adult Education Research Conference, University of Wyoming, Laramie, May 1987

[8] Paul Armstrong, 'Right for the wrong reasons: a critique of sociology for professional adult education' in B.P.Bright (ed), *Theory and Practice in the Study of Adult Education* (London: Routledge, forthcoming)

COMPARISONS IN PERFORMANCE OF ADULTS AND HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS ON THE 1988 TESTS OF GENERAL EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (GED): IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

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Abstract: The performance of adults on the newly revised GED Tests was similar to that of graduating high school seniors in social studies, science, and interpreting literature and the arts, but poorer in writing skills and mathematics. For GED graduates, performance over all five tests was equivalent to that of seniors.

Introduction

Educators face diverse challenges as they seek to provide effective instruction for adults preparing to take the Tests of General Educational Development (GED) for high school equivalency. Today's rapidly changing society demands higher levels of reading and reasoning skills than in the past. Adult educators who are responsible for designing, planning, and implementing GED instructional programs need to know what areas of skills and knowledge should be targeted for special emphasis. Some of these areas logically would be those in which test performance is relatively low.

Because the GED Tests measure learning outcomes associated with completion of a four-year high school program of study, credentials based on these tests are considered equivalent, for most purposes, to a high school diploma. This paper presents results from recent research conducted by the GED Testing Service (GEDTS) on the performance of adults who completed the new 1988 GED Tests. These results provide preliminary indications of the strengths and weaknesses in cognitive skills of adults who took the GED Tests during the first six months of 1988. Implications for practitioners are discussed and suggestions are given for staff training and program development.

Statement of the Problem

Periodically, the GED Tests are revised to reflect changes in curricular and instructional practices in the nation's high schools. The last major revision to the GED Tests was in 1978. Revisions in the 1988 GED Tests were guided by the recommendations of national advisory committees comprised of curriculum and adult education experts from throughout the country. In 1984 these committees recommended two major changes in the content and format for the 1988 GED Tests (GEDTS, 1984). These changes are 1) the inclusion of a writing sample (essay) as part of the Writing Skills Test; and 2) greater emphasis on higher level thinking skills, as described in Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy, in the remaining multiple-choice tests. In addition, scores on the tests reflect new norms, based on a spring 1987 administration of the new tests to U.S. graduating high school seniors. The content and format of the new tests are described in detail in recent GEDTS publications (1985, 1987a, 1987b).

Although the tests are normed on a sample of high school seniors and measure knowledge and skills typically acquired in a four year high school program of study, the GED Tests are designed to measure the skills of adults. Because the academic skills of adults may differ from those of high school seniors in important ways, it is important to evaluate the relative performance of adults and seniors on specific content and skill areas measured by these tests. Such an evaluation provides information which can be used to develop and improve instructional programs for adults seeking to take the GED Tests.

Methodology

Test performance results were based on standard scores, essay raw scores, and multiple-choice percent correct scores averaged over persons for three samples of test takers on each of the five tests in the GED battery.

Sample

Three groups of test takers were studied. These three groups were All Examinees, all adult GED examinees who took the new GED Tests in 20 states between January and June, 1988; GED Graduates[1], those examinees who achieved a standard score of 40 or more on a given test; and Seniors, graduating high school seniors who participated in the national standardization study in the spring of 1987.

For the Writing Skills Test, Part I (multiple-choice questions), the sample sizes were 10,897, 1,774, and 4,831 for All Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors, respectively. For Part II (essay), the sample sizes were 1,974, 1,393, and 2,127 for these groups respectively. For each of the remaining four tests -- Social Studies, Science, Interpreting Literature and the Arts, and Mathematics -- the sample sizes ranged between 11,300 and 11,600 for All Examinees, between 8,700 and 10,200 for GED Graduates, and between 4,600 and 4,800 for Seniors[2].

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[1] Although a minimum standard score of 40 on each test in the GED battery is a requirement widely used as a basis on which to award a high school diploma, it should be noted that individuals do not obtain diplomas based on any one test. Rather, decisions to award a high school equivalency diploma are made by the participating states and provinces and are based on passing standards which also require minimum total scores on all five tests. For the purpose of this study and for analyses by test, however, the subgroup named GED Graduates is that part of the All Examinees sample earning a standard score of 40 or more on a given test.

Instrumentation

The Writing Skills Test contains 50 multiple-choice items and one writing sample (essay). The Social Studies Test and the Science Test each contains 60 multiple-choice items, the Interpreting Literature and the Arts Test contains 40 multiple-choice items, and the Mathematics Test contains 50 multiple-choice items. Although additional items appear on each of these tests for field test purposes, such items do not contribute to test scores and are not included in these analyses.

Results and Discussion

For each test, the average standard scores attained for All Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors are presented in Figure 1. The standard score scale, which is based on the performance of the senior standardization sample, is designed so that the average score for seniors on each test is 50 and their standard deviation is 10. The average of five standard scores on the 1988 GED Tests for GED Graduates, 49.6, is nearly the same as the overall mean standard score for Seniors, 50. When these results are examined by test, as shown in Figure 1, the All Examinees group achieved nearly the same level of performance as Seniors on three tests -- Social Studies, Science, and Interpreting Literature and the Arts -- with average standard scores of 48.9, 49.7, and 48.7, respectively. GED Graduates, on the other hand, significantly[3] outperformed the Seniors on these three tests with average standard scores of 50.8, 51.5, and 50.9, respectively. On two of the tests, Writing Skills and Mathematics, the performance of both All Examinees and GED Graduates was significantly lower than the performance of Seniors. In examining the average standard score performance of adults on the Writing Skills Test, it is important to recall that this test has two parts -- a multiple-choice component, Part I, and an essay component, Part II. Because the standard score for this test is based on a composite of the raw scores from Part I and Part II, performance on both the multiple-choice and essay portions of the test are reflected in the standard score. On the Writing Skills Test, All Examinees and GED Graduates attained average standard scores of 43.8 and 47.0, respectively, while on the Mathematics Test, the average standard scores for these two groups were 44.5 and 47.8, respectively. Seniors' average standard score on each of these tests is 50. Because standard scores are not related linearly to the number of questions answered correctly, and the latter may be more easily interpreted, Figure 2 presents the results for each test in terms of the percentage of multiple-choice items correctly answered by All Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors. On three tests -- Social Studies, Science, and Interpreting Literature and the Arts -- All Examinees correctly answered about two-thirds of the multiple-choice items on each of these tests, as did the Seniors. The GED Graduates correctly answered between 3% and 6% more of these items than did the Seniors.

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[2] The All Examinee sample size for Part II (essay) of the Writing Skills Test (N = 1,974) is considerably smaller than for Part I (multiple-choice) of the Writing Skills Test (N = 10,897) because at the time these data were analyzed, not all of the essay scores for examinees had been received by GEDTS. The smaller sample for essay scores for All Examinees resulted also in smaller samples for GED Graduates (N = 1,393) because selection into this subgroup required the computation of standard scores for the Writing Skills Test which are based on both Parts I and II.

[3] All comparisons are evaluated for significance at an alpha level for two-tailed tests of .003, such that the probability of any Type I errors among a series of 15 planned comparisons is no more than 5%.

On the multiple-choice portion of the Writing Skills Test and on the Mathematics Test, the mean percent correct scores of All Examinees was lower than those of Seniors. On the Writing Skills Test, Seniors on the average correctly answered 73% of the multiple-choice items, while All Examinees correctly answered 67% of the items. GED Graduates, however, achieved the same level of performance on the multiple-choice portion of the Writing Skills Test as the Seniors, correctly answering 73% of these items. On the Mathematics Test, Seniors correctly answered an average of 70% of the items, while GED Graduates and All Examinees correctly answered 66% and 58% of these items, respectively.

The average raw scores on the essay portion of the Writing Skills Test for All Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors, were 5.6, 6.2, and 6.6, respectively, based on an essay score scale from 2 to 12[4]. The relative difficulty of Parts I and II of the Writing Skills Test for All Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors suggests that while the essay is more difficult for GED Graduates than is the multiple-choice portion of the test, the performance of the GED Graduates on the skills measured by the multiple-choice items may be strong enough to compensate in part for their lower essay scores. However, both portions of the Writing Skills Test contribute to the substantially lower average standard score of 43.8 for All Examinees on this test, and of the two parts, the essay presents the greater challenge for adult examinees.

Conclusions and Implications

GED Graduates possess educational skills which are at least as strong as those of graduating high school seniors in the areas measured by the Social Studies Test, the Science Test, and the Interpreting Literature and the Arts Test. The strong performance of both All Examinees and GED Graduates on these three tests suggests that examinees' skills in reading comprehension, analytical reasoning, and general problem solving -- skills which may be more easily acquired through life experience than skills in writing and mathematics -- serve them well on the GED Tests.

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[4] For a description of the essay score scale and how holistic scores are assigned, see The Official Teacher's Guide to the Tests of General Educational Development (GEDTS, 1987).

Although the writing and mathematics skills of the GED Graduates are strong enough to pass the test at the common minimum standard score requirement of 40, they are considerably weaker than those demonstrated by graduating high school seniors in these areas.

Adults who have not done any formal writing for several years need frequent practice in writing. For the GED Writing Skills Test, students need to know how to develop an essay which presents and supports a point of view. Administrators should continue to offer staff development in writing for experienced teachers and to require this training for new GED teachers. Teachers should be helped to feel comfortable about teaching writing and should learn the necessary skills to teach writing effectively.

Of all cognitive skills measured by the GED Tests, mathematics may be the most sensitive to effects of recent instruction. Because the new mathematics tests places more emphasis on problem solving skills than in the past, drill and practice in computation is an inadequate approach to mathematics instruction. Rather, teachers should provide students with problem solving strategies and examples. Administrators should provide staff development workshops on both mathematical problem-solving approaches as well as strategies to develop and strengthen positive attitudes about mathematics. Teachers should themselves have skills in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry and they should be confident of their own ability to set up and solve mathematics problems.

Prepared with information about the performance of GED candidates, with background on the content of the tests, and confident of their own ability to teach both writing and mathematics, GED teachers should be able to improve their students' achievement on the revised GED Tests.

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Figure 1

Average Standard Score Performance of Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors on the Tests of General Educational Development (GED)

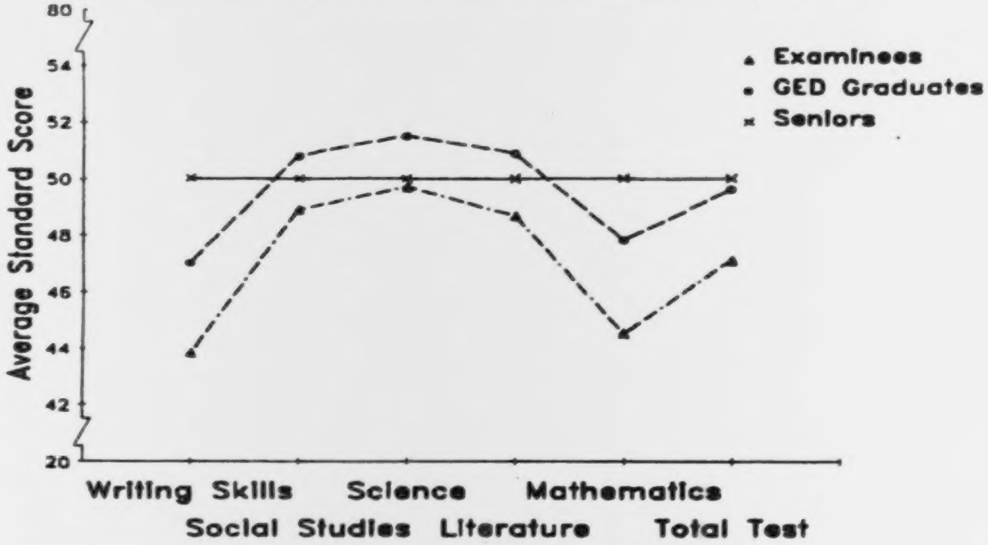
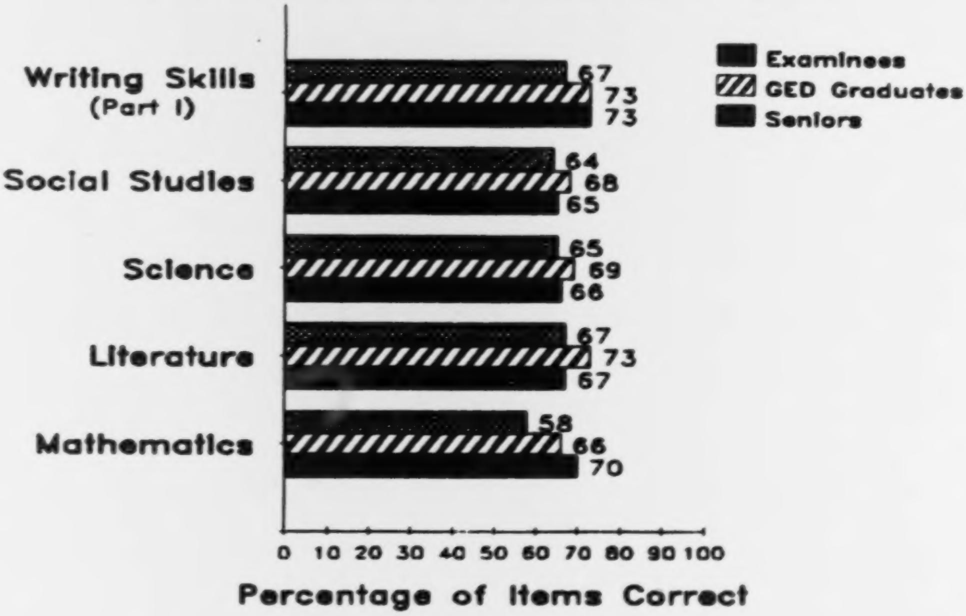


Figure 2

Average Percent Correct Scores for Examinees, GED Graduates, and Seniors on the Tests of General Educational Development (GED)



Research Writing: Patterns and Strategies of Some of North America's Most Prolific Adult Education Researchers

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ABSTRACT

The writing activities of a sample of prolific adult education researchers is explored. Stages in the writing process, and issues and strategies such as managing time, writing for an audience, writing settings and the differences between writing books and articles are examined.

BACKGROUND

Courtney (1986), Plecas and Sork (1986) and Rubensen (1986) are amongst those who have called for more and better research to maintain the viability of adult education as a field of study. The collecting, arraying and analysis of data or ideas is only part of the total research process. Unless these ideas and data are presented in a systematic and understandable manner the initial part of research may be for naught.

By disseminating this study the authors hope to help newer and developing researchers to understand writing practices which appear to contribute to successful publication of research.

METHODOLOGY

In order to better understand how successful researchers actually carry out research and write it up, the authors interviewed 17 of the most prolific adult education researchers in North America, as determined by the number of publications in major adult education journals within a recent five year period. Each had published an average of 38 articles, 9 book chapters, 4 books and 6 monographs. A pre-tested protocol was used to collect data by telephone interviews, each lasting from 75 to 120 minutes. Analysis of the typed transcripts involved using Glaser & Strauss' (1967) method of constant comparison and emergent categories and properties. An overview of the results of the study was reported to AERC (Garrison & Baskett, 1987). A description of how this purposeful sample generates research ideas was reported to the Leeds TransAtlantic Dialogue in 1988 (Baskett & Garrison, 1988).

FINDINGS

In analyzing the data it becomes apparent, for this group of successful research writers at least, that the research process is highly complex. One cannot simply analyze segments of the process as if they are isolated. What went before, and what will go on after writing the research affects that writing. For example, unless the writer has been involved intimately with a body of literature over a long period of time, has developed a line (or lines) of research, is in a role in which explanation and understanding is valued, possesses such personal characteristics as curiosity and drive, and is in an environment where enquiry is supported and nurtured, it is unlikely that the individual will ever produce a piece of research in written form (Baskett and Garrison, 1988).

Similarly, unless one is able to anticipate the audience, and to know the intended journal or other publication - its expectations, standards, biases, style, etc - the likelihood of that writing actually reaching an audience is significantly reduced.

For purposes of description, we have organized the findings in the order in which writing activities seemed to occur: getting ready to write; "triggering"; outlining; and writing, revising and editing.

Where one writes, managing one's writing time, strategies, use of colleagues, and anticipating the audience will also be addressed. Quotations used are for illustration only.

Getting Ready to Write

A preparatory stage leads up to, and precedes, the actual outlining and writing. We have called it "Getting ready to write". It involves a constellation of sub-activities: reading and note-making; reflecting and organizing.

Reading and note-making. These seem to be companion activities in many cases, although sources of notes are not always what one reads. Reflections on some relationship, idea, possibility, etc. also get put on pieces of paper: "I have spent just a lot of time, maybe months, reading materials on a particular dimension...and making notes..."; "That has something to do with the way that I review literature. I write notes to myself...."

Reading and note-making is not random. It is selective according to the topic or general theme or issue to which the writer is attending. In some cases this is on-going. Authors are always collecting material: "I keep accumulating ideas and information in some general topic areas."

In other cases, the amassing is much more oriented to an article which they plan to write: "I generally keep a file folder for various things having to do with the research."

The very fact that there are files or piles into, or on, which material is placed suggests that a framework, theme or some other kind of classification is occurring. Several of those whom we interviewed referred to the files and piles which they had on shelves, on their desk, in drawers. Each represented a topic, article or some research in progress.

Reflecting and organizing Reading, amassing and organizing is accompanied by reflective activities. This is on-going, but as one gets closer to actually writing an outline or draft, reflection and organizing seemed to become more prominent: "...I will walk around the apartment or I will go out and run and let it all filter through...."

Sometimes, the reflective process involves others: "I talked with several people about the topic, bouncing ideas off of them."

These ideas and issues seemed to "rattle around" in some of the researcher's heads for some time: "I then usually end up having the idea as kind of gestalt for --- many weeks." Slowly the reading, amassing, organizing, reading, and reflecting leads to some kind of order: "...at some point...I feel some kind of organization emerging around this ideas."

Despite some claims to the contrary, a very considerable amount of energy is expended even before the author can begin a rudimentary outline of what he or she plans to say.

Triggering the Writing

There seemed to be two "trigger points". One was the event which made the researcher conscious enough of an issue, concern or opportunity that he or she began amassing relevant materials and making notes.

A second point occurred much closer to the actual writing. These usually were more specific and "set off" a series of activities which seemed more goal-oriented. Such activities included more focused note-making, outlining, and a clearer idea of who the audience was. This was, in effect a commitment to write a specific work. These "points" could not be found in all cases.

Even the commitment to write a specific work was usually made long before the first outline or draft. In some cases, these commitments were externally derived and very concrete - a deadline, having a paper accepted, a contractual commitment or a need to meet publishing expectations of the university. Other triggers seemed to be more internally derived. One researcher reported writing an article in response to his inability to "get through" to a colleague. Another objected to the approach taken in a book and felt called upon to write a critique using her own theoretical perspective.

In some cases, the actual "triggers" are a combination of factors, for example, having sufficient material and an opportunity to present it or write about it: "... what data I have (for) a conference that is coming up will determine which (topic) I will go with."

Whatever the actual trigger or motivation, this group of researchers did not all begin writing with equal ease. Some said that they just got right down to the job, whereas at least one reported..."the getting started process is very erratic...."

All the forces, activities, pressures and commitments noted above seemed to converge at a point of actual writing. Not all of our subjects experienced this "threshold of action", but it appears at least some could articulate a certain point at which action occurred. "...At some point, I get to the stage where I have the sense that there is enough in my head and in these notes that it would be a good idea to...put down the first draft...."

Outlining. For most, outlining, either in one's mind, or more usually on paper, is a pre-cursor to writing the first draft. Outlining varied from very simple to very detailed. One of the determinants of the amount of detail was the nature of the writing or subject itself. Books involved much more detailed outlines than articles. Research reports already have a predetermined outline, usually following the topics or areas for which data were collected and analyzed.

Several reported that their notes or file cards were a excellent technique for outlining - they spread them all out and physically re-arranged the cards into some sort of classification.

Outlines were sometimes in a constant state of revision. Outlining began in some cases with the very manner in which ideas and notes were put into files and piles - a rudimentary classification had begun much before the outline was placed on paper or organized consciously in one's mind: "I tend to use an outline but continually revise it. In some cases this may involve developing more detail if the "writing" does not yet emerge.".

Writing,Revising and Editing

Each respondent understood the meaning of "drafts", "revisions", and "editing" in slightly different ways. However, it appears that changing one's manuscript is a constant activity, and will vary by the nature of the individual writer, the topic or project, and the potential publisher. As many as thirty, and as few as one identifiable changes were reported. The norm seemed to be three to five.

We could perceive a pattern of changes in the manuscript. It seemed that deep major structural changes occurred early on, sometimes in the outlining process. These were usually referred to as drafting, re-drafting, re-vising, and re-writing: "I do a lot of drafts at the beginning of what I am writing....The middle and the end of the writing becomes fairly fast and routine and doesn't amount to much."

Later on, as the manuscript approaches its final form, changes are of a minor nature - grammar, spelling, sentence structure. This was the "editing" and "polishing" stage, although many still referred to it as revisions or re-drafts: "...my two later drafts are not very much different, although I do work on...technical things - rephrasing and stuff like that."

Between drafts, and in addition to the author's own reflection and self-critiquing, some writers told us that they used others to help them either confirm what they had written, or to provide a fresh perspective: "I will send it out to these people that I mentioned earlier and have them review it and critique it and get it back, revise it and so on."

An important point of revision for certain writing, especially those for refereed journals or books, is when feedback from the reviewers is received: "In the case of a juried journal... there is further rewriting to be done on parts of it, responding to the comments of the jury."

It is somewhat misleading to speak of numbers of drafts as if they are discrete acts. Re-drafting and editing are always going on, and with the advent of word-processors one redraft is blurred with another because one is able to "tinker", "fiddle", "adjust" continually.

Differences between books and articles. Is there a difference between writing a book and writing an article? Six said there was a difference, six said there wasn't, and the remaining responses were not clear. Several believed that the difference between a book and an article was the level of demand or time commitment. Articles and papers on the other hand were said to be generally easier to write.

Writing books was also said to be different because the focus is broader. Book writing thus draws from a broader range of the author's whole repertoire: "...in setting forth the book...you are dealing at a larger scope. With an article, usually it is more focused-it is only part of a part of that field that you addressing."

Another difference between books and articles seems to be the intensity of preparation and specifically the outlining: "A longer work like a book or a monograph usually requires a chapter outline...."

Managing Time. How do prolific writers manage their time so that they can produce as much as they do? One of the most-used methods is to schedule regular writing time. Six of our interviewees reported that they used this method: "I will just block out on my calendar."

Not all write according to a schedule. Mood, available time and deadlines determined when some wrote: "I just do it when the spirit moves me, mostly at night."

Our more prolific authors seemed to prefer mornings to write. For some, this seemed to be related to energy level later on in life: "I do a lot of early morning writing, when I am fresh." Three to four hour time blocks were preferred.

Where do they write? The office was not a favourite; home was the most preferred: "I work nicely at home in my chaotic study."

The significant variable in selecting a setting in which to write appears to be freedom from distractions and space: "...I have to be...hidden away where I can't be distracted."; "If (my den) is too cluttered, I often go down to the dining room table." However, some seem able to write anywhere: "I do work in the library, in my office or on an airplane or where ever."

Dependence on technology may also be dictating where some must write - at least until lap-top computers become more plentiful: "That's where my terminal is (home) so I am kind of bound...to home."

Writing Strategies

Are there specific strategies which our prolific writers use which might be of help to fellow researchers and writers? In the course of the interviews and during specific questioning several such "tips" emerged, and we share them for what they are worth:

> Four told us that they start writing the easiest parts first, leaving the more arduous parts until later, when they have become so involved that they cannot easily retreat.
>
> Giving papers setting deadlines or having some other commitment which forces them to begin writing was a strategy used by several.
>
> Time management seemed to be critical. Most reported some systematic way of arranging for blocks of time and quiet surroundings.
>
> Periods of intensive work, broken by doing something quite different such as walking, jogging mowing the lawn were also reported. This was especially helpful during times of "writers block" or fatigue.
>
> Having the audience - readers and publisher - in mind when writing was recommended strongly by several.
>
> Strategizing the "flow" of publications was used by several scholars. One could see the evolution and refinement of "pieces", which began as speeches and "think pieces" and which eventually ended up as articles. Articles and papers on the same theme sometimes resulted in book chapters. New ideas and emerging "pieces" were constantly being fed into the "hopper".

DISCUSSION

Brockett's (1988) study provides us with some data against which to compare our results. Because our sample was purposeful, and his was representational, actual comparison of proportions do not make sense. However, Brockett's finding that techniques for facilitating writing included setting a schedule, seclusion, and using upcoming conference presentations to stimulate writing very much parallels our findings. Goal-setting was also identified by both Brockett and this study.

The advent of word-processors was noted in both studies as becoming a significant factor in research writing.

Hunter's study (1985) of 18 prolific scholars in higher education also gives us opportunities for comparison of categories, although not proportions. In both studies, "...employment in an environment supportive of scholarly activities" (p.19) were found to be important underpinnings for prolific researchers. Hunter's findings that writers use such strategies as blocking out time, deadlines, and writing in distraction-free environments also parallels the finding of this study.

We cannot help but note the similarity between the phases of doing research described here and the critical thinking process. The researchers interviewed for the study appear to be quintessential critical thinkers and conduct their activities according to the phases of critical thinking described by Brookfield (1987). These phases are a triggering event, appraisal, exploration, developing alternative perspectives, and integration. From the initial idea or state of dissonance (triggering event), to reading and discussing (exploration), to reflecting (developing alternative perspectives), and finally, to the organization and expression of the ideas, the manifestation of the critical thinking process were evident.

CONCLUSION

Based on this small purposeful sample, generalizations are not possible, nor are they intended. What is emerging, however, is the range of possible relationships and activities which cluster around the writing process. It is our hope that these insights will enable ourselves and others to move from the context of discovery to the context of justification (Phillips, 1966) in better understanding this dynamic and important adult education activity.

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Popular Education in Latin America

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BACKGROUND AND METHODS

I remember the first time I read Friere's Pedagogy of the Oppressed; I have read it several times since. Within the sometimes discordant symphony of concepts and allusions there reoccurs a simple theme: If humans are to be free from oppression, they must understand the forces which control their lives, and once this understanding (conscientizacao) occurs, they will be naturally motivated to act. Conscientization leads to empowerment; empowerment leads to action. Not only did this message seem profound, but it also seemed alien to my own educational experience which is a product of North American culture.

My fascination with Freire at that time, however, was primarily intellectual. For me Freire was the great educational philosopher, although I knew that in Latin America and Africa Freire was greatly revered as a practitioner. Then, in 1985 I had the opportunity to attend the World Assembly of Adult Education in Buenos Aires, Argentina which was jointly sponsored by the International Council for Adult Education and CEAAL (Consejo de Educacion de Adultos de America Latina). CEAAL is a coordinating body for popular education in Latin America, and through its network, popular educators from throughout Latin America were able to come together. As I interacted, my fascination with popular education grew as did my respect for the popular educators I met.

When I returned to the United States, I decided that I wanted to initiate a study of popular education, a study that would focus on the meaning of popular education in the context of Latin American culture. ICAE put me in touch with CEAAL which agreed to co-sponsor the study and to grant me access to programs and respondents if I would agree to a Latin American co-investigator. I agreed without hesitation and was pleased to learn that the co-investigator would be Patricio Donoso, a Chilean philosopher who I had known for several years and respected highly. My university agreed to fund the study and granted me a sabbatical. Subsequently Patricio and I met at CEAAL's headquarters in Santiago, Chile and mapped out a research design that focused on popular education in three national contexts: Mexico, Peru and Chile.

Between February of 1987 and May of 1988, Patricio and I collected 78 depth interviews with popular educators in the study countries and observed popular education in action in many diverse contexts. Our work in Mexico was greatly facilitated by Felix and Carlos Cadena of CLASEP (Centro Latinamericano de Apoyo al Saber Popular de Mexico). A supplemental grant from Rutgers enabled us to transcribe all data verbatim, most of which is in Spanish.

To present a comprehensive analysis of our findings here is clearly impossible because of space limitations. Thus I will focus on but one of the many questions we addressed. Specifically, what is popular education; what attributes separate it from other forms of adult education?

WHAT DEFINES POPULAR EDUCATION

With the People

Stripped of all nuances and variations due to different contexts, the common element which defines popular education is a strong sympathy with "the people." When we asked what defined popular education, we consistently received responses such as: "with the people", "for the poor", and "working with the peasants". Popular educators perceive themselves as working in a domain which contrasts markedly from the domain of traditional forms of education which support the dominate classes and power structure.

"With the people" means not only for the people, but also within the culture of the people. Latin American poor are embedded in a culture which has sometimes been called a culture of poverty. Many, especially in Mexico and Peru, have strong indigenous cultures with rich traditions and folkways. In many ways these traditions provide an infrastructure for popular education. For example, among the Mapuche indians of Chile there is a traditional form of group work where if a large task is to be completed such as house raising, friends and relatives are summoned for the task. Those invited are obligated to work in return for a feast provided by the host as payment. This tradition provides an excellent opportunity for popular educators to support group solidarity and is strongly encouraged by them.

Similarly, in Mexico there is a rich tradition of popular communication embodied in song, drama, and pageantry. These channels of communication are frequently used by popular education programs.

When we began the study, I expected that the most critical attribute of popular education would be conscientization. This is not the case. A sizeable minority of those interviewed did not even mention conscientization as an attribute of popular education, and very few considered it to be paramount. Most, but not all, had heard of Freire and had been greatly influenced by his ideas. Part of the reason for this is that popular education has roots which significantly pre-date Freire and has been shaped by many forces, of which Freire's ideas are but one (Nunez,1982). In terms of the content of popular education, it would be safer to say that development is the key ingredient and that conscientization is but one element of development.

Development

In the third world there are two competing visions of development. One stresses economic development from the top down and focuses on building large scale technologies designed to produce exports for sale in the markets of the developed world. In the view of popular educators, this vision merely increases the wealth and power of the dominant classes with no benefits to "the people" whose labor is exploited. As I traveled down the central valley of Chile in February, for example, I observed miles and miles of ripening fruit protected with barbed wire and guard towers. All was for export to meet North American demand for fresh fruit in winter. I could not buy a peach or apple in the local market; there were none.

Another vision of development begins with the people and stresses self-affirmation, basic human rights, a higher standard of living using available technology, and self-reliance. This is the vision of popular education. Translated into the content of popular education, this popular-oriented vision of development is capacitization -- building the capacity among people to solve their own problems.

This takes several forms. One is problem solving. Freire notes, as do many others, that in solving problems peasants often resort to "magical" thinking in belief that the forces of deprivation are supernatural and are, therefore, beyond their direct intervention as humans. A way to combat this tendency is to build a capacity for empirical thinking and scientific problem solving. Participatory research is a common method.

An example is a program outside Valpariso, Chile which is attempting to help small landholders to grow food on small plots of very marginal land. At the outset, participants are urged to keep three separate plots. The first employs traditional gardening techniques, while the second features the new "appropriate" technology. By comparing the yields and costs of maintaining the two, the participant is able to evaluate empirically the value of the new methods. The third plot is an experimental plot where the participant tries new techniques which he "invents" based on the knowledge gained from experience with both new and traditional techniques. When an invented technology proves effective, the practice is then diffused to other participants in the project.

A second area of capacitization lies in the development of group infrastructure such as leadership, communication, and organizational skills. Examples of this sometimes lead to apparent contradictions. In Chile, I visited several demonstration stations. At a station near Santiago I noticed that the peasants had built a large windmill from oil drums and other inexpensive parts. Although this was visually impressive and had obviously entailed considerable labor, I wondered why a windmill; the valley around Santiago has some of the worst air pollution in the world for the simple fact that mountains block all the wind.

Similarly, at a site near Chonchi we witnessed an experiment in salmon aquaculture despite the fact that within five miles was a lake teeming with salmon and within ten miles was one of the world's richest maritime fisheries.

When I mentioned these apparent paradoxes, the answers were revealing. A windmill was built because it was a complex task calling for group division of labor, problem solving skills and leadership. The propose was not to build a windmill, but to build group solidarity. Salmon aquaculture was chosen because the participants, a farmers union, were jealous of commercial salmon fishermen who owned the means to salmon production. They wanted to demonstrate that through group effort they could "farm" salmon as well as they could farm vegetables. In both cases teaching a new technology was primarily a means to building an effective social infrastructure.

A third method of capacitization is to provide specific knowledge though exiting or developed social channels. Such knowledge generally pertains to subject areas which can have a large impact on the well being of participants such as health practices, and agricultural techniques. CEAAL coordinates many networks in such areas of knowledge, health being an example, and a wide range of instructional and teacher-training materials have been developed and disseminated.

Focus on the Collectivity

Just as popular education has a discernable content, it also has a discernable educational technology. The attribute which distinguishes this technology from the technology of traditional education is the unit of focus -- the group for popular education, the individual for traditional education.

In traditional education, the unit of focus is the individual who is seen as the repository of knowledge conveyed from experts to neophytes. Educational success is measured by how well collections of individuals do on individual tests. The motivation to participate comes from individuals' (or their surrogates') belief that they will benefit individually through increased incomes or social prestige. The technology of instruction derives from psychology, the science of individual behavior.

In contrast, for popular education the unit of focus is the collectivity. We frequently asked a very basic question: what evidence do you have that your work is effective? In every case the response focused on collective goals, such as "they elected a leader", or "they developed an agricultural cooperative", or "they organized a demonstration against the landowners." Not once did we receive a response typical of individually-based technologies such x percent got jobs, or y percent increased their incomes.

Because popular education is directed toward the collectivity, a highly process-oriented instructional technology is used which can adapt to the specific needs and goals of collectivities. This generally includes group needs assessment, development or support of group infrastructure, skills directed toward learner-identified tasks, and participatory evaluation. Although popular education is frequently directed toward specific projects, projects tend to be part of a protracted presence rather than "one shot deals."

Ideology

As one would expect at this juncture, popular education is to a considerable extent delimited by a common ideology and value system, and this is evident at all levels. When we asked respondents to describe their vision of the society they were seeking to achieve, two commonalities were evident. First, popular educators are working towards an equal society, a classless society in which resources are allocated equally and all, regardless of milieu, have an equal voice in the decisions which affect their lives. Second, in the good society everyone should have a sufficient amount of life's basic necessities such as food, shelter and health care.

These prescriptions for the good society are to some extent mediated by the concept of lucha or struggle. Popular educators, with good justification, perceive that the dominant systems of the world are in opposition to their basic ideology. Thus, achieving the good order requires struggle, struggle with the people and struggle for the people. Lucha provides the energy and commitment to popular education. It is the force which feeds the process.

Intellectually, the ideology of popular education derives from two compatible sources: humanistic Marxism and Christian liberation theology. Both thought systems stress humanism, equality, activism, and an intense sympathy for human suffering. Generally, church-based programs and non secular programs cooperate well, but not always.

Organization

In Latin America, popular education is more than a collection of programs, it is a movement -- a movement built on a transnational organizational structure. This structure is based on the concept of network (red). Grassroots programs are networked into national coordinating networks which, in turn, are networked into international coordinating bodies. Information flows in all directions. For example, I observed materials produced in Peru being used in Chile, and Chilean materials being used with Mexican peasants.

To a great extent, this highly adaptable and efficient structure is a product of non-governmental organizations (NGO'S). NGO's are popular-oriented organizations generally financed by North American or European governments and foundations or the church. Since they operate outside the national government, they are not constrained by the bureaucracy and corruption which hamstrings many governmental programs. Furthermore, many European governments, the Dutch being an example, fund popular education programs in several countries. This common connection through funding sources facilitates international organization.

Issues

Of the many issues which are commonly discussed among popular educators, two merit discussion here. The first is called the macro/micro problem. The objectives of popular education -- capacitization, democratization, equal distribution of resources -- have often been achieved at the local level where face-to-face interaction is possible. Yet, how can these objectives be achieved at the level of society itself? While some popular educators point to the mass mobilization systems of Nicaragua and Cuba as positive examples, others note that freedom of expression and poor economic growth are often the price of mass mobilization.

The second issue is one which faces organizations which seek to work with the people rather than to act upon them. How does popular education resist the kind of bureaucratic ossification which occurs when more educated power holders become entrenched and maintenance of the organization becomes more important than what it does? The answer is not an easy one, but the movement, la lucha, depends on its resolution.

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ACHIEVING STYLE AND MOTIVES AND METHODS OF THE GOAL-ORIENTED SELF-DIRECTED LEARNER

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Abstract: Although cognitive style and learning style have been investigated often in relation to self-directed learning (SDL) preference, a new characteristic, achieving style, has never been introduced to adult education or examined in relation to SDL preference. The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the adult's cognitive style, achieving style and selected demographic variables to a preference for self-directed learning.

INTRODUCTION

Several adult education researchers studied the Witkin and associates (1977) theory of cognitive style and concluded that self-directed learners must be field-independent thinkers, based on their problem solving ability and independent learning style (Even 1982; Walker and Simpson 1983; Pratt 1984). However, Brookfield (1986) recently reviewed his 1981 study of successful self-directed learners and pointed out that his subjects possessed characteristics of field-dependent thinkers. Perhaps mental processing is only a part of what adult education researchers must investigate when determining the etiology of self-directed learning behavior. To the investigator, the self-directed learners in Brookfield's 1981 study were achievers. They seemed to be motivated by goals to achieve recognition and camaraderie with fellow learners. The learners in the Gibbons, et. al. (1980) study were achievers with no formal training beyond high school. After conducting a literature review in achievement motivation, the investigator discovered a theory of achieving styles developed by Lipman-Blumen and associates (1983).

The important learning mechanism in the achieving style theory is the child's need to satisfy physical needs in a dependent setting. Children will learn to "get what they want" either with, apart or through others. As a result, humans develop styles of goal accomplishment (achieving styles) that are transferred to how they complete self-directed learning tasks. The theory proposes three achieving "domains" that represent motives for how to accomplish goals. Direct achievers confront the achievement tasks directly and use their own efforts. The instrumental achiever evaluates relationships with others and accomplishments as to their value in promoting further achievements of the individual. Relational achievers passively or actively help others to accomplish their goals in order to accomplish their own. Within each of these domains are three subcategories that further differentiate learned achieving patterns in human behavior (see Figure 1).

THE STUDY

Houle (1961) concluded that there are three types of learners: goal-oriented, learning-oriented and activity-oriented. The achieving style theory seemed to fit the goal-oriented, learning project "stream" (Griffin 1978) of self-directed learners, which accounts for a large number of individuals who participate in self-directed learning activities. Thus, to test the achieving style theory and suggest that many characteristics are present in the complex phenomenon, self-directed learning, the investigator decided to examine the relationships among cognitive style, achieving style, age, gender and educational level to preference for self-directed learning. The three demographic variables (age, gender and educational level) were chosen because of their documented influence on self-directed learning preference in past research studies. There was no attempt to "label" self-directed learners in this exploratory study; achieving style theory suggests that individuals can learn to access various styles for certain situations. However, if there are no social sanctions or outside pressures involved, individuals tend to possess two to three "peak" achieving styles that they automatically utilize in any learning situation.

METHODOLOGY

There was one null hypothesis for the study set at the .05 alpha level for significance: there is no relationship among cognitive style, achieving style, age, gender and educational level alone and in any combination to the adult's preference for self-directed learning. It was understood that Brookfield (1986) and others have encouraged the qualitative measurement of self-directed learning, yet there is error in any type of data gathering. Therefore, the investigator chose to use both quantitative and qualitative research methods for the study.

The sample consisted of 300 adults from northern Illinois, 23 to 80 years old with a minimum of an eighth grade education. Subject locations were randomly selected, with 200 of the 300 subjects from the jury lounge at the DuPage County Courthouse in Wheaton, Illinois. All subjects completed three instruments: the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) to measure cognitive style, the Achieving Styles Inventory (ASI) to measure achieving style and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) to measure a preference for self-directed learning. In addition, 30 short interviews were conducted with 10% selected from each of the seven locations in the study in order to provide validation of the SDLRS as a measure of self-directed learning preference. Correlations, multiple regressions and measures of

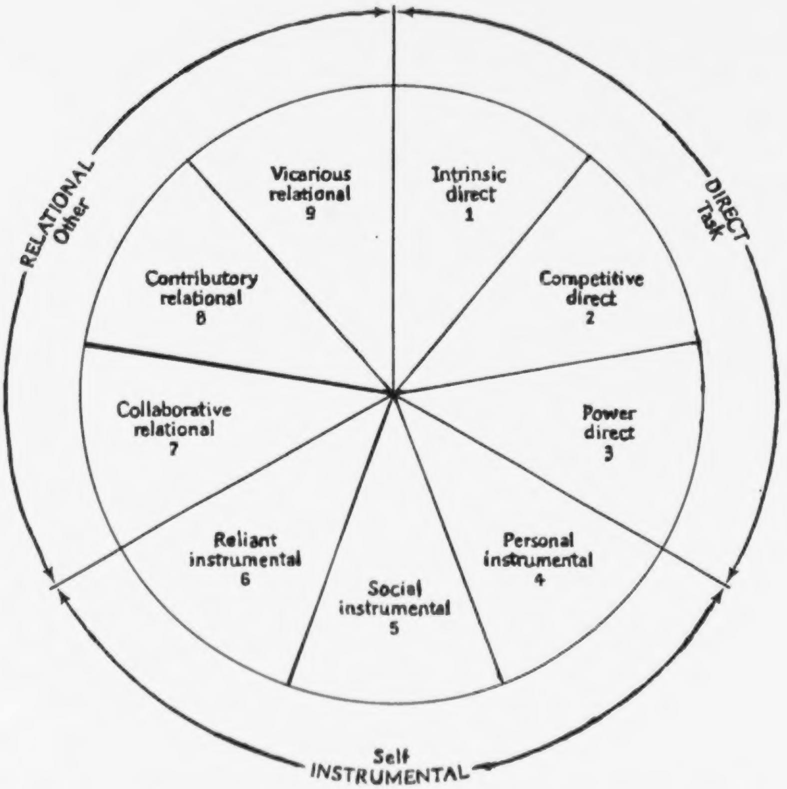
RELATIONAL
Other
DIRECT
Task
Self
INSTRUMENTAL
Intrinsic
direct
1
Competitive
direct
2
Power
direct
3
Personal
instrumental
4
Social
instrumental
5
Reliant
instrumental
6
Collaborative
relational
7
Contributory
relational
8
Vicarious
relational
9

Figure 1: Achieving Styles Theory

INTRINSIC-DIRECT: Learner who attacks a task and receives satisfaction from learning according to an internal standard

COMPETITIVE-DIRECT: Is characterized by a penchant to compare oneself to another or another's accomplishments

POWER-DIRECT; Loves to take charge of individuals and tasks

PERSONAL-INSTRUMENTAL: Chooses goals and the means to accomplish them that will garner them recognition and rewards

SOCIAL-INSTRUMENTAL: Uses relationships with others as the means to accomplishing any goal; the ends are controlled but not always the means to the goal

RELIANT-INSTRUMENTAL: Wants others to select means and ends in goal completion; totally relies on others to complete learning tasks

COLLABORATIVE-RELATIONAL: Has a propensity to accomplish goals through a group effort

CONTRIBUTORY-RELATIONAL: Wants to contribute to the goal accomplishment of others, but does not wish to take any credit for it

VICARIOUS-RELATIONAL: Observes others and vicariously accomplishes goals through them central tendency were employed for statistical analysis. Interviews were conducted before the quantitative data was compiled to avoid any bias in data interpretation.

FINDINGS

The null hypothesis was rejected. Results indicated that the achieving style inventory was a highly valid and reliable instrument. Cronbach alphas for the direct, instrumental and relational achieving style domains were .925, .870 and .894 respectively. A factor analysis of the ASI was very clean, with all nine constructs clearly found. The other instruments were also valid and reliable with this sample, but had been tested in numerous adult education studies in the past.

Several multiple regression analyses were run, with the final analysis revealing nine subject characteristics together accounting for 61% of the variance in self-directed learning preference. Table 1 shows that the overall significance level was $p < .0001$. The intrinsic-direct and power-direct achieving styles explained the most variance in SDL preference, with the intrinsic-direct achieving style possessing about four times the explanatory power of the GEFT or the measure of cognitive style. The power-direct achieving style explained approximately three times as much SDL preference as the GEFT. Age and educational

TABLE 1

Multiple Regression Analysis: Self-Directed Learning Preference Explained by Nine Subject Characteristics

Subject Characteristic	Raw Score B	Standard Score B	Sig.
Age	.303	.111	$p < .005$
Educational Level	1.809	.173	$p < .001$
Gender	-11.911	-.182	$p < .0001$
GEFT Score	.555	.102	$p < .02$
ASI Subscales			
Intrinsic-Direct	12.959	.448	$p < .0001$
Power-Direct	7.149	.314	$p < .0001$
Personal-Instrumental	- 2.790	-.111	$p < .02$
Social-Instrumental	- 3.223	-.125	$p < .005$
Reliant-Instrumental	- 3.642	-.127	$p < .005$

	R	R^2	F	Sig.
Overall Regression	.780	.608	50.104	$p < .001$

level were both significant in explaining SDL preference, but were only about a third as powerful as the intrinsic-direct achieving style in accounting for variance in the dependent variable. This study also indicated that women tended to prefer self-directed learning more than men, although the means and medians of SDLRS scores of men and women in the study were only separated by about two points. Men in the sample tended to be more field independent and direct achievers and women tended to be more field dependent and relational achievers. Perhaps this more "traditional" outcome can be partially explained by the mean age of the sample, 43.9 years.

The 30 interviews indicated that the SDLRS was valid to measure self-directed learning preference, and also demonstrated achieving styles "at work" in the reflections and dialogue of 11 of the 30 subjects. Several learners were members of self-help groups that were clearly chosen by relational achievers; direct achieving styles were found in one man who was building his own garage and another who was rebuilding a stereo; a man who was renovating an authentic World War II fighter plane was motivated by the recognition he received for it and exemplified an instrumental achiever. No further depth was sought in the interviews, because their primary purpose was to validate the use of the SDLRS to measure SDL preference rather than readiness. Hassan (1981) is one researcher who has demonstrated a strong correlation between SDL readiness and actual participation in SDL activities. Thus the investigator chose the SDLRS for this study, but wished to confirm it through qualitative interviewing.

IMPLICATIONS

This study introduced the theory of achieving style to adult education research. The fact that five of the nine achieving styles were significant in explaining learners' preference for self-directed learning indicates that this work might be the first of many studies examining the impact of achieving styles on self-directed learning. In addition, learners might select self-directed learning activities that are more compatible with their preferred achieving styles if they are aware of those styles. By selecting SDL activities according to preferred achieving style(s), learners might finish more projects and derive more satisfaction from SDL activities. The Achieving Styles Inventory is certainly not the only tool, but it could be a partial answer for goal-oriented, self-directed learners who are stagnated or dissatisfied in their learning tasks.

In addition, this study indicated that cognitive style alone is a rather weak indicator of self-directed learning preference. If this study was repeated, the investigator would try to find a substitute for the SDLRS to measure self-directed learning preference. The thread linking the theories of field independent/dependent cognitive style, achieving style and goal oriented, self-directed learning is the notion of autonomy. Each theory indicates the degree to which the learner chooses autonomous control over the learning task in a different dimension. The SDLRS seems to emphasize independence in learning rather than autonomy, and thus the strong relationship between the intrinsic-direct achieving style and SDL preference in this study might be examined in future investigations.

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JUMPING TO CONCLUSIONS IN THE POST-POSITIVIST BANDWAGGON

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Abstract : There is an increasing tendency to couch research within post-positivist traditions. This will likely exacerbate problems stemming from the broadcast of "unsound" conclusions, such as the notion that most people engage in "learning projects".

Introduction

Popkewitz (1984), claims that "paradigms" often emerge as artifacts of socio-cultural conditions. Thus, for him, "empirical-analytic" science developed from "pragmatism" and the need to "administer" transformations associated with North American industrialization, immigration, "high technology industry" and "finance capitalism". The "symbolic sciences" responded to the apparent ability of American capitalism to yield material progress but not "spiritual satisfaction". The "critical sciences" have long been part of North American traditions but reassserted during the academic debates of the 1960's, social upheaval associated with the Vietnam war, and unmasking of 'structural' inequality and powerlessness. European Marxist perspectives were seen as a way of legitimising debate about power, control, and psychological development outside arenas occupied by hard-line Communist or Stalinist traditions. Fromm, Adorno, Marcuse and an entire generation of social psychologists, were deeply immersed in the European Marxist traditions Ýa fact often ignored by critics who 'blame' psychological reductionism and "value-free" approaches for problems in adult education research¨.

Perusal of recent AERC and similar *Proceedings* reveal a marked "paradigmatic" shift in papers presented. Twenty years ago most research was cast within a positivist tradition. Today, the reverse is the case and, moreover, more authors are employing qualitative methodologies in association with a positivist tradition. Because of the "applied", "action"-oriented and "participatory" orientation of much adult education research, and the feeble and often atheoretical nature of much "positivist" research, post-positivism is making steady inroads into the adult education academy. This trend will likely increase, not abate and it is no exaggeration to say that a bandwaggon has arrived.

Meaning of Positivism

Phillips (1983) investigated the alleged death of positivism and claimed that four "conceptions" of it were discernible. "Comtean-type" positivism, has an elevated respect for science and focusses on observable, objectively-determinable phenomena; "logical" positivism, wherein there is no unanimity, assailed metaphysics and, most importantly in this context, adopted the "verifiability principle of meaning" which, in modern parlance, becomes, "if you can't see or measure it, it's outside the realm of science". Operational definition is critical to logical positivism. In the third "conception", positivism is used as a smear word when "behaviourism" - which some claim rejects the importance of "inner" events as determinants of behaviour - is the real target. This position is common in adult education but untenable because positivism cannot be found guilty for the alleged sins of behaviourism. Finally, in the fourth "conception", positivism is sometimes used as a label for "empiricism". This is an unfortunate useage because although positivism may involve a type of empiricism, not all varieties of empiricism are positivism and, if positivism gets crushed by a loaded waggon, many varieties of empiricism will remain unscathed.

It is also important to note that post-positivism owes an immense amount to positivism and, as Phillips (1983) observed, "some of the most boisterous celebrants at positivism's wake are actually more positivistic than they recognize, or have more in common with positivists than they would care to admit". Moreover, a critique of post-positivism in adult education should not be construed as a claim that all is well in the positivist rose garden.

The purpose of this paper is to:

1. Speculate about forces that impelled the arrival of the post-positivist bandwaggon in adult education.
2. Question the extent to which the ready acceptance of "post-positivism" will contribute to the historic proclivity for broadcasting unsound conclusions derived from adult education research.

Opening the Stable Door

For decades, significant numbers of adult education researchers hovered uneasily at the edge of research traditions where legitimacy and status appeared to depend upon an ability to couch research within a positivist frame of reference. Nevertheless there has always been a strong post-positivist tradition in adult education research and, in recent years, interest in it has accelerated. Now it is pertinent to wonder why.

The recent wave of post-positivism to reach the adult education research academy in North America parallels the "internationalization" of the field. Many researchers have been influenced by Freire, popular education, and other movements that embrace relativism and repudiate the notion that education and, by implication, educational research, is value-free. Secondly, many leading advocates of post-positivism are former social activists who encountered Adorno, Fromm, Marcuse and other descendants of the Frankfurt and related schools, throughout the 1960's. In middle age, their hair is shorter and many even wear a tie as they sit in influential chairs at universities and research institutes where post-positivism provides a licence to haul "activist" agendas into the academy. Those who once mounted noisy assaults on the academy are now warmly ensconsed inside dissecting its ideological entrails and proclivity for "reproducing" itself. The imprecise but wide boundaries around adult education, and the historic tendency to import pieces from other disciplines, facilitates this process. Fourth, adult education has been significantly more preoccupied with social change and immersed in anarchist-utopianism (Paulston, 1977) than other branches of education. Lastly, there is widespread disenchantment within adult education with the fact positivists have been unable to rectify social ills associated with illiteracy, powerlessness, non-participation in socio-political affairs, environmental degradation, poverty, nuclear armaments and the rest of the "world problematique". Positivists never claimed an ability to solve these problems, since they require political will, but they have been found guilty anyway.

One of the most strident critiques of positivism is the notion that positivists search for some "absolute reality" and that all research (even the most "objective" experimentation) is "socially constructed" or embedded in a social context. Giroux's (1981) is an insistent voice and he has found positivism guilty of this and additional sins - they are not future oriented but celebrate the present, they hold a "passive" model of humankind, collaborate with the laying of foundations for "technical control and coordination", hold to a principle of "rationality" (in contrast to hermeneutic principles that undergird speculative social sciences) and are interested in prediction and explanation.

History and Biography

The intersection of history, structure and biography shapes the extent to which research "paradigms" and conclusions find an audience in the adult education academy. For example, throughout the 1960's, students in France heaved flagstones at gendarmes to protest their frustration with higher education, North American universities were in tumult, politicians scurried to hide massive blunders associated with the Vietnam war and a pervasive "youth culture" changed society for all time. The educational system was in crisis and "deschooling" became a serious element in academic discourse. These kind of events spawned the Faure (1972) report and created a fertile soil for Tough's (1971) notion of "self-directed learning" which appealed to anarchistic-utopians and, because of its timing, had an impact far greater than its conceptualization and methodology warranted.

The writer's work on participation and motivational orientations arose from an interesection of biography and history as well, and, because of its timing, and also had an impact greater than was warranted. However, its connection to societal concerns is not generally recognized. The author, a New Zealander, was deeply immersed in the anti-Vietnam war movement in the 1960's, was at the centre of (successful) efforts to bury French nuclear testing in the Pacific, and had an altercation with the Security Intelligence Service which worked to undermine his situation at the University. At the early stages of the Vietnam protest, success was thought to revolve around an ability to mount successful political campaigns and foster widespread participation in "education" that, presented "our" and the "government" view. Here, as elsewhere, participation research arose from socio-political theories concerning democracy, power, and the allocation of resources but also the "concrete reality" of the context in which it occurred.

There is a tendency in adult education to assume the presence of quantification or statistics always denotes a positivist orientation and, by implication, a repudiation of post-positivism. Indeed, at one AERC, where the writer presented a "qualitative" analysis of army education in W.W. I (Boshier, 1982) he was cheerily informed by two drivers of the post-positivist bandwaggon that he had been "born again". At last factor analysis had been lain aside in favour of an "interpretive" approach ! The advice was well meant but a manifestation of a tendency in adult education to construe the world in a series of false dichotomies. The current exemplar of this is the tendency to uncritically embrace sociological and repudiate psychological perspectives. This separation of macro from micro-level considerations obscures the corrosive nature of fundamentalism, which is the antithesis of "learning", and has enormous consequences for adult education.

These are serious matters because even casual observers of adult education research might get the impression positivism is being swept aside by the "symbolic" or critical sciences and associates who gallop on horses unleashed from the stables of phenomenology, qualitative methodology, the Frankfurt school or the "new sociology of education". At times, the debate is acrimonious (see Phillips, 1983; Eisner, 1983) and students easily fall victim to "paradigmatic" intra-office warfare which is long on name-calling ("number crunchers", "story-tellers") and short on substance. Dogmatism and self-righteousness easily become a substitute for the kind of genuine pluralism that has long characterized, for example, psychology, where clincians happily work alongside experimentalists.

Drawing Conclusions

Explanations as to why post-positivism is having such an effect on educational research are many and varied. But what is important here is the fact adult education is peculiarly vulnerable to the predations and persuasiveness of post-positivists, and this easily leads to situations where unsubstantiated assertions or personal beliefs masquerade as "fact". If Ministers of Education were to hear about some of these - such as the "fact" 90% of the population routinely engage in learning projects - the consequences might be something other than what the researcher intended.

Post-positivism has legitimized the work of adult education researchers previously alienated by the apparent ascendancy of positivist traditions. This has brought a welcome infusion of energy into the adult education academy but, as the post-positivist bandwaggon thunders by, and researchers driven by a sense of social mission clamber aboard, everyone is under an obligation to derive sound (verifiable) conclusions. Remember that members of the Klu Klux Klan and the Nazi Party have clearly articulated belief systems and "research" from which they have derived "conclusions" about ethnic origins. All their variables and claims are "socially constructed" and it might be useful to ask about what distinguishes the soundness of their conclusions and ours.

Neither positivists or post-positivists have any claim to rectitude in this regard. For example, Houle (1961) interviewed 22 people and claimed they fell into one of three "learning orientations". Despite the reported use of a questionnaire this work was couched within a post-positivist frame of reference but his "conclusion" (that there are three, rather than two, seven or fourteen "orientations") does not withstand attempts at verification. Another example of the "Chicago tradition" is the work that followed Tough's (1971) investigation of learning projects. This typically involved an interview schedule and, after a fair amount of "probing" and cajoling, results that suggest a vast majority of people engage in learning projects. This led to the use of an "iceberg metaphor" to capture the idea that the amount of visible "learning" that occurs in formal educational settings is inconsequential when compared to all the "invisible" so-called "self-directed learning". But when conceptual problems are piled upon methodological error variance the main "conclusions" of this work cannot be sustained (Boshier, 1983). Indeed, in this writer's view, the exact opposite is a distinct possibility. Large segments of the population do not engage in learning projects; indeed, there appears to be a plebian culture wherein television viewing and beer drinking are prominent, and widespread ignorance about social, political and technical affairs is the norm rather than the exception.

Researchers of all kinds agree that research usually involves a "problem", a "methodology" - or processes designed to secure data that pertain to the problem - some form of "analysis" (conceptual or otherwise) and the drawing of "conclusions" that illuminate the original problem that impelled the work. Experienced researchers know that it is tough to draw conclusions because the data or evidence do not speak as clearly or as unambiguously as one had hoped, or the "wrong" data was collected. Some writers avoid the difficulty by declining to draw any conclusions and a few publish the "research" even when the project has collapsed and there is no chance that sound conclusions will emerge. This historic problem with conclusions has been compounded by the arrival of the post-positivist bandwaggon.

Source of Unsound Conclusions

Post-positivists quite rightly claim that even the most "objectively" derived variable is laden with assumptions based on the context from whence it comes. But, because of this alleged "weakness" in positivism, some "post-positivists" think this gives license to jettison obligations to distinguish between "fact" and "belief".

Positivists camouflage subjectivity with all kinds of devices but also the case that consumers of educational research need to know when they are dealing with personal beliefs or conclusions that can be sustained by evidence or have attained the status of "fact" (Marx, 1963). It will not suffice to avoid the issue by claiming that all "facts" are socially constructed because we are arguing about probabilities, not absolutes. Guba and Lincoln (1982) and other advocates of "naturalistic enquiry" recognize the need to use inter-judge reliability procedures to handle interview transcripts or historical documents and others have written about how the various permutations of "validity" are embodied in post-positivism. Unfortunately, in some parts of the adult education academy, the mention of "verifiability", "reliability" and "validity" or a demand to be shown the "evidence" for research "conclusions" is treated as a relic of unrepentant positivism. But without ways to verify findings and conclusions and epistemological devices to distinguish between knowledge and belief, adult education "research" will become narrowly focussed on specific contexts and, as such, of even more limited utility than the so-called "value" or "context" free research of positivists that at least has the virtue of building theory that can be transported from setting to setting.

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A FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF ETHICAL ISSUES IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract: A recent review of literature has shown that research on adult education ethics is virtually nonexistent. Yet, ethical issues clearly lie at the heart of adult education practice and study. The intent of this paper is to advocate for the conscious development of a research agenda relative to adult education ethics. A distinction is made between the need to study ethics from the perspectives of the individual and the organization and several methodological issues relative to the study of ethics are considered.

INTRODUCTION

Adult education is a field characterized by great diversity in both ideology and practice. As such, educators of adults must deal with questions and issues that often force them to confront their basic values and beliefs. Frequently, these confrontations are played out in the arena of ethics. While ethics is a familiar theme within many areas of education, health, and human services, interest in the topic has only recently begun to emerge in the adult education field (e.g., Singarella & Sork, 1983; Brockett, 1988a).

It is our belief that adult education ethics is a virtually unexplored territory that holds much promise for research. The purpose of this paper is to advocate for the active development of a research agenda in this area by examining a number of substantive directions for such an agenda and by identifying certain methodological issues that may impact upon such an agenda.

SUBSTANTIVE DIRECTIONS FOR RESEARCH

In a recent review of ethical issues in adult education (Brockett, 1988b), a model was presented as a guide for considering ethical practices in adult education. In this model, it was suggested that ethical practice can be understood within the context of three interrelated dimensions; the personal value system of the educator (values), a consideration of conflicting roles that often emerge as a result of the educator's multiple responsibilities and the ways in which these personal values and multiple roles can be operationalized in practice.

When examining ethical issues, it is important to ask from whose perspective the issue is being studied. For instance, the above model assumes that the individual adult educator is the point of departure for understanding ethical practice. However, ethics can be studied from many other perspectives as well, such as the learner, the organization, the profession, and society in general.

For purposes of this paper, we would like to focus on two perspectives: the individual and the organization. The figure presented below illustrates the distinction between the two perspectives (individual and organizational) and the three dimensions of ethical practice (values, roles, and actions).

		PERSPECTIVE	
		Individual	**Organizational**
	Values	Ind. Values	Org. Values
DIMENSION	**Roles**	Ind. Roles	Org. Roles
	Actions	Ind. Actions	Org. Actions

Each of these categories hold potential for the generation of researchable questions.

The Ethical Individual

Because the process of moral decision making is typically initiated on an individual, personal level, it would seem appropriate that a framework for the development of a research agenda relative to adult education ethics begin by viewing ethical decision making from the perspective of the individual adult educator. This perspective, which serves as the basis for the dimensions of ethical practice model as originally presented (Brockett, 1988b), can be helpful in designing research to create greater understanding of how ethical issues are understood and dealt with on an individual basis.

Individual Values - How do personal values influence ethical decision making? This question serves as a foundation for at least two potential research directions based on the values that individuals hold. First, there is a need to understand what are some of the major ethical dilemmas confronting adult education as identified by the educators themselves. For example, it is frequently assumed that violation of confidentiality is a potential ethical problem in adult education practice. However, there is very little empirical support to confirm or refute that this is, in fact, perceived to be a concern among those who operate in practice settings.

A second direction for this research thrust centers around issues of moral and ethical development in adult educators. One way to approach this issue could involve application of various general frameworks of ethical development (e.g., Kasworm, 1988) that have emerged in recent years. For example, do theories such as those offered by Kohlberg and Gilligan help us better understand how adult educators might handle ethical dilemmas that arise in practice? Another way to approach moral and ethical development would be through the measurement of adult educator's ethical orientations. Forsyth (1981) has developed a typology of ethical ideologies that can be measured empirically. If such an instrument were determined to be relevant to adult education research, it might be possible to look at relationships between a person's ethical orientation and a host of psychosocial variables.

Individual Roles - Central to potential research directions in this category are the questions of to whom one is responsible and how one deals with situations where fulfilling responsibility at one level will conflict with other responsibilities. Mirvits and Seashore (1979) have argued that ethical dilemmas frequently arise "not because roles are unclear but because they are clearly in conflict" (p. 771). In such situations, the educator is likely to be faced with a choice, where "acting on one moral `conviction'. . . means breaking another" (Purtilo & Cassel, 1981, p. 5). Potential research questions may emerge in attempting to understand decisions made by educators in such situations and the process through which these decisions are made.

Individual Actions - How do individuals act relative to ethical practice? This question can be useful in generating several research directions dealing with the ways in which basic values and the dilemmas arising out of one's multiple responsibilities as implemented in actual practice situations. For example, how are beliefs put into practice? To what extent are adult educators' beliefs consistent with their actual practice? Are there certain ethical principles that appear to guide practice? What are the attitudes of adult educators relative to having a formal code of ethics? How do educators respond when they are witness to actions they believe are unethical?

The Ethical Organization

Morals and ethics are typically considered to be part of individual behavior (ethical individualism). Recent discussions concerning management and administration of organizations suggest that the organization, as a collective unit, is also responsible for the identification of a normative ethos, as well as the development of policy reflecting ethical standards and of leadership to advocate and support ethical actions within its organizational decision-making process. Research has also demonstrated the conflicts and constraints of individual ethics in relation to organizational expectations and requirements. When individuals act on behalf of their organization, they assume an organizational role and action which may reflect the organizational ethos, as opposed to the individual ethos. Further, organizations may informally sanction, if not enforce, unethical actions through policy and impact of practice. Theory and research regarding the ethical organization has been limited. The following elements are suggested to guide the researcher in considering the nature of organizational values, roles and actions as an "ethical organization."

Organizational Values - Boling and Dempsey (1981) suggest that the problematic nature of ethics in organizations is partially the need for conceptual clarification. As a collective structure, an organization operates through a "normative system - a normative ethos or guiding rules plus acceptable actions and ideal that characterize social systems" (p. 14). He suggests that this normative ethos is founded in values, which are abstract standards identifying what is right and proper for the group; norms, which are regulations supporting values; morals, which are personal judgments based upon values and norms; and ethics, which present the ideal dimension ("what ought to be"), suggesting the generation of new patterns of behavior leading to change in norms and morals.

Research regarding ethics in organizations could focus its initial inquiries in the identification and definition of organizational values. These values would reflect the organization's structural, functional, cultural, and environmental group properties. Key inquiry issues would include 1) the identification of elements and contextual dynamics which created and supported the "collective" standard of what is right and proper for the organization; 2) the evolutionary patterns of these organizational values over time, societal context and organizational development; 3) the interactions and interrelationships of these organizational values in relation to its collective membership (including both its employed membership, as well as its voluntary membership); 4) the potential influence of its organizational roles and mission on its organizational values; and 5) the nature of congruence and interaction of its organizational values in relation to its parent organization value structures.

Organizational Roles - Every adult and continuing education organization has multiple roles and responsibilities. As an organizational entity it assumes specific ethical positions in relation to its role as an administrative managerial unit, an employer of personnel, a fiscal unit, and a member both of a parent organization and of a broader geographic community. Organizational values, legal requirements, power, policies, and personnel actions are the basis for the daily organizational decision making. In addition, adult and continuing education providers also face highly complex ethical dilemmas as part of their specific organizational mission. As educative units, they face unique and often ambiguous ethical dilemmas in relation to their outreach to particular adult clientele; their role in the design and implementation of specific program interventions; their role in certifying, credentialling or validating a set of learning experiences; their accountability as a reputable, quality-oriented educational provider; and their role as a member of a professional educational community. Adult educators also place an organizational role value in effectively and efficiently serving the adult learner and the representative organization; thus implicitly, if not explicitly, accepting the ethical definitions of their clientele as part of their organizational mission.

Research regarding organizational roles could focus its initial efforts upon the descriptive typology of these varied organizational role expectations and standards, identifying key ethical dilemmas of specific organizational roles common to adult educational providers. In addition, these organizational roles are influenced by the nature of the individual in the role and his/her ethical definitions and actions in this organization. Thus, research activity would need to progress toward considerations of the dynamic interactions between the individual role and the organizational role.

Organizational actions - One of the most fascinating future areas for research would be a consideration of the nature of the "ethical organization" in adult education. Although organizational values and roles are components of this area, this particular part of the framework considers the organization as a unit with its own set of explicit ethical commitments and qualities as an organization. For example, how would one consider the organization as a "moral community?" How would the organization define ethical actions through its mission and strategic planning? How would the organization define and act upon its leadership for social responsibility and quality of life concerns? How does the organization consciously confront its own values? How does the organization deal with issues of competition, duplication of services, and political conflicts? How does the organization deal with the unethical employee or client learner? How does the organization establish a climate of integrity and ethical practice? These are each relevant questions for future ethics research concerns.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION ETHICS

The conceptualization and implementation of a research agenda concerning ethics is fraught with many key issues. The first concern is the recognition by the researcher of the particular perceptual frame of the research method in relation to the research question. The beliefs and biases of the researcher can cast defining shadows upon the conceptualization of ethical issues and the nature of the data to be collected. Given the formative nature of this area for adult education, many researchers will find that theory conceptualizations, phenomenological research (particularly grounded theory), and historical inquiry can prove valuable. In addition, interdisciplinary research efforts with applications of theoretical paradigms from other disciplines may prove valuable in the development of a more thoughtful understanding of the nature and dynamics of ethics.

Related to the need to use a variety of methodologies to study adult education ethics is the potential for researchers with training in philosophical methods of inquiry to bring this expertise to bear on the topic. As has been stated previously (Brockett, 1988c), there is a need to look at ethics from a philosophical analysis (i.e., metaethics) perspective. Individuals who possess this background can make a unique contribution by helping provide greater understanding of how people make meaning of terms such as "good," "bad," "right," and "wrong" with regard to their actions as educators of adults.

Another potential methodological concern relative to the study of ethics in adult education revolves around the potential sensitivity surrounding the topic. Like other topics where respondents are asked to discuss their own experiences in potentially controversial areas, such as sexuality and drug use, researchers who study adult education ethics will probably need to be sensitive to the possibility that respondents may be reluctant to respond in a completely open way because of fear of repercussions. While the researcher can clearly take steps to protect the confidentiality of respondents, and can demonstrate these precautions clearly to respondents, the problem of response bias must certainly be kept in mind when designing studies of adult education ethics.

Finally, given that ethics has been such unexplored territory for adult education, it would make sense to critically examine how ethics has been studied within other fields. While there has often been controversy over whether adult educators should "borrow" from other fields in developing its own knowledge base, this would seem to be a case where many valuable lessons could be learned that would ultimately help to avoid reinventing the wheel and to more expeditiously focus on research efforts in this area.

CONCLUSION

The area of professional ethics is a fertile ground for adult education research. The framework that has been presented in this paper is only one way to look at potential research areas. Likewise, the questions that have been raised are only a few possibilities. The point is that until we begin to actively seek answers about concerns such as these, we at best be able to speculate about the nature of ethics relative to the education of adults. The time is right for us, as a field, to begin to address these questions.

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MARGINALITY THIRTY YEARS LATER

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The concept of marginality received much attention from scholars in the field of adult education from the year it was introduced into the literature (1958) until the early 1970's. Since that time there has been little discussion about marginality due perhaps to the fact the much of the research in the field has taken a "self-directed" turn and little research into the organizations of adult education has been reported in the literature in recent years.

This article examines the ways in which marginality as defined and described by Burton R. Clark (1959) has been used and misused in the filed of adult education. It also proposes that there exists countervailing forces to marginality. Such forces, it is contended, are as powerful as the forces causing an adult education unit to be marginal to its organization.

Definitions

The first use of the word "marginality" as it applies to adult education was by Clark (1958) as he described the relationship which existed between the Los Angeles Public School District and one of its subunits -- the Adult High Schools unit. Clark concluded that adult education units were marginal to parent organizations because of three forces: the voluntary nature of the adult learner; competitive environments in which adult education units exit; and the degree to which such units' programs were accepted by groups inside and outside the parent organization.

Misapplication

Marginality is bounded firmly within the study of organizations, however when Clark began to use it in adult education literature he took liberties that moved the concept beyond organizational boundaries. Others soon followed his example. For instance, London (1959), Hallenbeck (1964) and Krietlow (1964) three important and influential writers in adult educating departed from Clark's original concept of marginality as an organizational variable. Misuse persists today as exemplified by Gilley and Galbraith (1988).

Jensen (1964) outlined a process for borrowing and reformulating knowledge from other disciplines that has been challenged (Boyd and Apps, 1980) and defended (Cookson, 1983). Marginality has had no reformulation in its application to the field. It has had only formulation and misapplication.

Methodology

Burnham (1984) used a systems perspective to examine how three adult education units planned programs. One of his conclusions was that the nature of the organization to which units belonged influenced the way they planned programs. And of particular interest here is the finding that host organizations purposefully designed ways in which adult education units would be central to their organizations.

The relationships of three adult education units with their organizations were analyzed using case study methods which included in depth interviews and document analysis. The organizations selected were a school district, a community college, and a university which all shared the same geographical location. Data were collected in depth interviews with unit and organizational heads. A total of 30 people were interviewed using non specific probes and a generalized protocol.

A School District

The Community Education Department was well integrated with the administrative structure of its School District. Factors which affected this integration were a supportive board of trustees, a professional community education Director and a committed Superintendent.

The board of trustees demonstrated their support for adult education in at least three ways. First, the board supported the department with a budgetary allocation rather than a fee increase. A trustee expressed his attitude by saying "when we're subsidizing other things, why not continuing education?"

Second, support was demonstrated by the board's approval of the department's proposed programs. Before each program period, a listing of courses was presented to the board for approval. The Director reported never having had a course disapproved.

Third, was the way the Director of Community of Education was viewed by the trustees. "James, is almost, he hasn't got the title but almost, the level of a [sic] assistant superintendent, at least the way the fellows [Superintendent and Assistant Superintendents] work with him."

This view of the Director was partly a function of his professional activities and his interaction with trustees. The Director explained:

> I'm a member of the Superintendent's Caucus, I go to all of the board meetings, I talk . . . [and] . . .I work closely with board members. There's an interaction with board members. When the board has retreats . . . then I go to those. Of course you develop support by providing information and data on programs. You don't develop support by answering questions at the board table.

Support was also a result of planning by the Superintendent who reported purposely building into the School District and Community Education Department overlapping and interrelated parts. For example, the Director's membership in the Superintendent's Caucus allowed the Director to help make decisions about overall district personnel assignments. In addition to membership in the Caucus, the Director was given responsibility for a number of non-adult education activities in the district such as management of the district's summer school, three community schools, and the district's public relations.

All of these factors affected and were affected by the tendency of School District administrators to look internally for nontraditional educational programs.

Such activities on the part of the Superintendent were conscious attempts to structurally integrate the adult education unit with the School District. When one reflects upon the fact that it was within the context of a school district that Clark originally encountered marginality it is surprising that he did not report any countervailing forces such as the structural integration found in this organization.

A Community College

A history of change at this College was directed toward integrating it with the Community Programs and Services Division. While integration of the adult education unit and the organization is the same concept as previously discussed, there is one major difference. The College integration was being attempted by making the rest of the organization as much like Community Programs and Services as possible.

These attempts included structural changes which took several years as the adult education unit attempted to carry out its mission. At one time, continuing education programmers were academic faculty members who with released time planned and administered continuing education programs. The Director of Continuing Education had no line authority or responsibility for personnel.

When a new Dean came to the College, he recognized these problems and made efforts to centralize the continuing education function.

Rather than relying upon the instructional departments for programming, the Community Programs and Services staff became actively involved in promoting continuing education programs thus influencing the organization to become a comprehensive community college. Within this structure programmers had a responsibility to academic departments in helping them become involved in continuing education.

This arrangement was designed to achieve involvement of the College in continuing education. The Dean described a back up system that could be used if a college unit failed to meet the mandate. "...that programmer has the right and mandate to do it. Because it must happen by law. We must have that comprehensive program in continuing education".

Another perspective on this problem was offered by the President of the College. He had recently been appointed President after serving as a campus principal and before that as Dean of Continuing Education. He commented about the most hindering influence on continuing education at the College: "The lack of a very clear and accountable structure, I think has been the most hindering thing in peoples's lives."

He described the old organization as radically integrative which attempted to avoid Clark's concept of marginality. The goal of this structure was to "totally integrate adult education or community education into the full fabric of the College via integration." In his opinion this attempt accomplished a value shift: the College viewed adult education as a legitimate part of its enterprise.

However, the old organizational structure was dysfunctional to continuing education activities. Such activities were not tied to the community and they did not serve community interests in the President's judgment. He viewed the present structure positively:

Continuing education has gone through at least three discrete phases at the College. Phase one can be termed radical integration as described by the President. Phase two can be termed centralization and can be viewed as a transition phase. It was less discrete than the other two phases but of critical importance to phase three which can be termed integration under a centralized organizational structure. An important part of the new structure was the position of the Dean. As Dean, the head of this unit can speak as one of the Colleges's senior managers to the College's mandate in continuing education. Phase three is a new model for the College and has two elements. One is a centralized structure and the other an integrated function. The Dean assigned programmers to academic divisions and is responsible for their selection and training. The line authority and reporting responsibility is to the Dean of the Community Programs and Services.

The College provides an excellent example of an organization that recognized the possibility of marginality and attempted to accommodate problems associated with it.

A University

The University's adult education division was originally set up as an extension of the regular university course work into the late afternoon and evening times. The first Director of continuing education felt "My real conception was that this University should simply extend its operation day and its range of scheduling right across a longer time period."

While non-credit activities have been added to the responsibilities of the unit, credit activities have heavily influenced the evolution of the unit. Continuing Studies is bounded by the academic expertise of its faculty. This bounding refers to the division's hesitancy to offer programs which do not extend or otherwise involve faculty expertise and may be related to the historical development of the division as it evolved from a unit offering only traditional credit programs into one which offers non-credit programs circumscribed by traditional faculty values. This concept of extension is based upon the desire of division staff to have the division integrated with the University.

Integration for the division means becoming as much like the organization as possible. This is more like the notion of integration in the School District than in the College. However, the means of achieving integration in the University differ from the means used in the School District. In the University, integration is sought through at least two mechanisms. The first is limiting programs to those areas in which the faculty have expertise. This is operationalized by requiring academic department approval and preferably academic department sponsorship of all continuing education programs.

The second way the division seeks integration with the University is through the reward system for faculty participation in adult education programs. The past Director noted that he and his successor had been successful in getting "work in continuing education programs...recognized as part of promotion and tenure..."

Faculty reward systems and program content are two identifiable mechanisms used to achieve integration in the University. Because traditional clients in school districts differ more from adult education clients than do university clients, the School District mechanisms for integration are based on organizational tasks assigned by the Superintendent. In the university mechanisms for integration are based upon program content. From the beginning of the division integration has been a goal.

The university President viewed this positively and as a contributor to the success of the division.

> . . . Continuing Studies has not been willing to take anything on that was not jointly sponsored by an academic unit on campus. In other words, it does nothing in the way of program initiatives totally on its own.

The Dean noted that "we are part of the University and we're not an independent unit and we are very influenced by that". He also noted that "Clearly any program that a department or faculty will not approve is inappropriate. We absolutely don't do anything that a faculty or department won't approve".

The Continuing Studies Division was striving for integration with its organization and just as in the other two units studied forces were operating to make this unit an integral part of its organization.

Conclusion

Some researchers have maintained marginality is a concept that has been "outgrown" by the field because adult education has become crucial to society. This study has demonstrated that such a use of marginality is a misapplication. The original use of marginality was as a concept to help explain institutional change. It has since been generalized by adult educators in attempts to explain the status of adult educators; the adult education field; the adult education movement; and adult education as part of professional organizations, communities, and societies. Perhaps adult educators would do well to study the phenomena of marginality in contexts other than the one used by Clark before blanketing all of adult education with marginality. It is an organizational concept that should be used within that context. If we wish to make applications outside of the organizations of adult education, then we should undertake research that will help us to do so. And as we look for marginality, we should also look for its countervailing force.

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COGNITION IN ADULTHOOD: CURRENT RESEARCH TRENDS

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Abstract: This paper explores three current research trends that question the notion that cognition in adulthood should be primarily equated with a decline in functioning. Implications are drawn for future research directions.

We as adult educators often puzzle over the issue of whether adults learn any differently than children. There are those among us who believe that adults do learn differently and, therefore, we should structure our practice, especially our teaching, accordingly. There are others who would take the stance that since adults process information differently as they age, we as educators should alter some of our practices, especially for older learners. There are still others who are openly skeptical about these purported differences and continue to ask for further clarification and elaboration.

Dantan, Rodeheaver, and Hughes (1987) characterize the early research on adult cognition as an "accumulation of data in many cognitive areas--conditioning, verbal learning, problem-solving, memory, formal reasoning--and comparisons of the performance of young and elderly adults on identical measures" (p. 165-66). Salthouse (1982) has provided an excellent summary of this line of research, highlighting five major age-related trends: 1) older adults are less proficient than younger adults at remembering many types of information; 2) age-related declines are consistently noted in spatial abilities; 3) perceptual-motor and cognitive-speed processes are impaired with increasing age; 4) substantial age differences are seen on sensory processes concerned with detection and discrimination of environmental information; and 5) in general, the magnitude of the performance differences between the age groups tends to increase directly with the task complexity. The interpretations of this earlier line of research have been mixed, with some authors accepting its premises and others almost dismissing them outright as being too narrowly focused and biased. Salthouse (1982) himself has posed the question of why "the age effects that are so dramatic in laboratory measures are not also evident in the behaviors of everyday life" (p. 202).

The responses to these paradoxical views on adult cognition have been many. They range from criticism of the research methodology (eg., primary laboratory based) to the notion that the variables being studied may be irrelevant to everyday life tasks and activities. This paper explores three current research trends that question the notion that cognition in adulthood should primarily be equated with a decline in functioning. One trend focuses on the prior knowledge and experience of adult learners rather than the process by which they gained that knowledge (Glaser, 1984). The second trend involves the reexamination of existing cognitive developmental models, particularly the formal operational framework proposed by Piaget (1972), and their validity as adequate explanations of intellectual change (Datan, et al., 1987). The third trend recognizes the role context plays in cognition (Cavanaugh et al., 1985). Peters and Lazzara (1988) note that "much of what people do is determined by the peculiarities and particularities of the situations or contexts in which they find themselves" (p. 242). In order to design an exploratory essay on these trends, three kinds of studies were used: literature which appears to seriously analyze or conceptualize the area of cognition in adulthood, recent reviews of pertinent literature, and empirical investigations of cognition in which adults comprised the sample.

Effect of Prior Knowledge on Adult Cognition. The first trend, that of emphasizing what learners know rather than how they process information, seems especially important as it is assumed that adults generally have a greater storehouse of knowledge than most children. This core assumption, the existence of a greater knowledge base, leads to the next: prior knowledge plays an important role in the acquisition of new knowledge and may, in fact, account for at least some of the cognitive gains in adulthood (Salthouse, 1988). In thinking through the possible connection of prior knowledge to the process of thinking and reasoning, both the depth and domain of that prior knowledge are important. In terms of the amount of prior knowledge one possesses, the differences between those individuals who know a great deal about a subject (experts) and those who know little about a topic (novices) is a key distinction (Glaser, 1984). It appears that experts not only have a greater quantity of knowledge, but they also think in qualitatively different ways than novices (Shuell, 1986). One application of this has been to build computer-based systems for modeling the ways experts solve real-world problems. Peters and Lazzara (1988) have described one way of building such a system and its application to studies of adult reasoning and thinking. Their model is based on two primary elements: "a picture of the problem-solving process that the person uses, and a structured record of the person's accounting practices" (Peters and Lazzara, 1988, p. 242), constructed from natural-language protocol texts.

In addition, research which describes this expert/novice distinction as it relates to domain-specific knowledge appears also to be a fertile area for more in-depth study of adult cognition (Shuell, 1985). This is based on fairly recent research that has demonstrated the level of expertise one has in a domain-specific area (eg., math, language skills) affects the learning process (Glaser, 1984). This is not to imply there are no universal laws of learning applicable to all subject matter areas, but that these laws should be modified in light of what we are now discovering about domain--specific acquisition of knowledge. Shuell (1986) also recommends that the various relationships between and among the different knowledge domains and what effect this might have on how people learn should be addressed.

Changing Models of Adult Cognition. Until the last two decades the developmental approach to adult cognition has been clearcut: developmentalists ignored it. The possibility of qualitative changes in thought process after the achievement of formal operations (Piaget, 1972) was given short shrift. The possibility that further evolution in thought might occur as an adaptation to adult tasks was basically ignored. However, with the willingness of scholars to reexamine existing cognitive development models, intriguing suggestions about the existence of a "fifth-stage" of cognitive development began coming from researchers interested in formal mathematico-logical thought, as well as those interested in social cognition.

Sometimes this new structure is referred to simply as the fifth stage. Various authors designate it as postformal or dialectical thought, metasystematic reasoning or the problem-finding stage (Arlin, 1975; LaBouvie-Vief, 1980; Commons, Richards, & Kuhn, 1982). If the performance outcome is in the mathematical realm, the fifth stage is defined as the ability to reason across systems, integrating diverse bits of information in order to synthesize a novel solution (e.g., Commons, et al., 1982). If the problem posed is in the realm of social cognition (moral reasoning, for example), the fifth stage is characterized as dialectical thought, the ability to reason beyond apparent contradictions and integrate diverse perspectives (eg., Riegel, 1973). In either case, it is thought to be a qualitatively different mode of thought than those which precede it. It is more than simply the ability to use formal reasoning more efficiently, more than the result of increased breadth or depth of knowledge. It is a different thought process, characterized by the ability to accept the relativity of multiple intellectual perspectives, an ability uniquely suited to the developmental challenges of adult life.

There are important research implications here. If the fifth stage is characterized by a qualitative change in mode of thought rather than a quantitative change in speed or efficiency of thought, then researchers need to place more emphasis on the concept of active learning (Shuell 1986). With the induction of new modes of thought, the focus of this research should shift more to studying the process of guiding learners on a transformational journey (Daloz, 1986; Merizow, 1985. What may result is a further understanding of what does transpire as adults develop relativistic perspectives and new methods of processing and analyzing information.

Acknowledging the Context of Adult Learning Experiences. The third research strand, an awareness of the impact and complexity of context in adult learning experiences, reflects the changing perspectives of researchers themselves. Cavanaugh et al., (1985) consider the synchronicity of social-personality and cognitive factors by employing an "interdisciplinary, integrative, and contextual" (p. 147) focus, one with an eye to the total reconceptualization of adult cognitive development. In a holistic search for "missing links" (p. 146) in existing theories, Cavanaugh et al. (1985) consider novelty along with motivation and understanding with insight, variables relatively new to the study of adult cognitive development. In a similar departure from traditional approaches, Chapman (1988) considers the cultural context of formal-operational and theoretic ways of thinking (characteristic of Western literate culture) and aesthetic ways of knowing (characteristic of Eastern culture).

Jarvis (1987) adds a further dimension, the consideration of subcultures within the "socio-cultural-temporal milieu" (p. 64) and the individual's affective response to the resultant comfort, or discomfort, of fit within those cultures. Given the connotative effects of cultural settings, Jarvis notes, "learning takes on an individualistic overtone even though people may share an apparently common social situation" (p. 64). Jarvis further observes that while individuals to some extent reflect the social structure of which they are a part, the process of interpreting and externalizing the impressions provided by culture involves a modification stage. According to Jarvis, individuals do not merely imprint those impressions, but rather they transmit a "changed version" (p. 14) to others in social interaction.

The idea that differing social experiences contribute to development across domains is itself not a new one. In a recent exploratory study of possible links between experiential and cognitive factors and those of moral development, Walker (1986) treats cognitive development and social experiences differently while acknowledging that one spills into the other. Walker concludes that gender differences in cognitive development may be linked to the differing social experiences of men and women. It is important to note that Walker's data, as self-characterized, is correlational data and, therefore, does not affirm causation. As Walker points out, the issue of perceptions of social experiences is not explored at all, at least no further than the observation that the men studied report higher levels of social experiences than did the women.

In the context of these and other increasingly complex crosscurrents in adult-cognition theory-building, Keating and MacLean (1988) offer a framework for reconstructing the way we think about adult cognitive development. Their approach celebrates the diversity of the pieces of the puzzle while warning of the limitations each piece's "isolated paradigm" (p. 284) can create. They too stress the need for cross-cultural checking of theories and the need to balance the study of internal schemas with the study of "cognitive socialization" (p. 289), particularly the impact of the home, educational institutions, and culture on adult learning processes. Keating and MacLean temper their blueprint for reconstruction with an acknowledgement of the difficulty of implementing such an "inherently interdisciplinary agenda" (p. 313). That caution is balanced with the challenge that taking such a "reconstructive perspective," one which "seeks to integrate phenomenological/organismic accounts, schema-based models, and hermeneutic/cognitive socialization investigations" (p. 313) could provide valuable new directions for cognitive development research.

Summary and Implications. The current research on adult cognition reflects a period of transition, a potentially therapeutic process of self-examination and rediscovery for adult educators. As a growing number of researchers and practitioners rethink both the questions they have been asking and the methods used to probe for answers, they are finding at least some validation for past assumptions. For example, we as adult educators have long stressed the importance of experience (Knowles, 1980) and have often observed, at least on a redimentary basis, that adults appear to learn differently than children. Mezirow (1985), in particular, describes a learning process of perspective transformation, changes in consciousness beginning in dialogue and culminating in a clear meaning perspective. Mezirow suggests that in order to facilitate that complex process, adult educators must be cautious in making separations:

> Distinctions between intellectual, personal and social development as alternative goals of adult education become patently spurious. They are integral dimensions of the same process; they are not understandable separately and they are to be judged by the same set of criteria--their approximation to, implications for, and movement toward the ideal conditions of self-directed dialogic learning (p. 150).

We have also long recognized the impact of social factors on the study of adult learning. Jarvis (1987) reminds us, "learning is not just a psychological process that happens in splendid isolation for the world in which the learner lives, but it is ultimately related to that world and affected by it" (p. 11).

In summary, there are three major implications for researchers in adult education:

1) joining forces on interdisciplinary, content-oriented teams with adult educators helping to bridge theoretical notions of adult cognition with the more practical observations of adults in everyday learning situations (Merriam, 1987; Salthouse, 1982);
2) lending our competence in multiple options in methodology, especially the different paradigms currently being explored by learning theorists, e.g., phenomenology and hermeneutics (Keating and MacLean, 1988); and
3) providing access to real-world populations that those from other disciplines who are studying adult cognition do not have available for study.

The implications suggest stirring beyond customary boundaries. The changing perspectives of some current researchers in adult cognition suggest that mobilization efforts are already in effect.

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A Framework for Effective Practice in Adult Education

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Abstract: I argue that the basis of practice is not measurable techniques but judgment. Thus, effective practice in adult education means making the best judgment in a specific context for a specific set of ethical beliefs.

A single model dominates most conceptions of effective practice in adult education. The premise of this paper is that this model is flawed because it doesn't adequately account for how adult educators practice. The purpose of this paper is to describe an emerging model of professional practice (Cervero, 1988) that provides a more accurate account of adult education practice. Prior to that discussion, I explain the dominant model of professional practice, its application to adult education, and why it doesn't account for how professionals (including adult educators) practice.

The Dominant Model of Practice

The key concept in the dominant viewpoint regarding professional practice is **expertise**. As described by Schon: "...professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique" (1983, p. 21). The two key assumptions are that practice problems are well-formed and unambiguous and that these problems are solved by the application of scientific knowledge. Thus, professionals are seen as possessing a high degree of specialized expertise to solve well-defined practice problems. The need for well-defined problems is crucial because as Moore (1970, p. 56) says: "If every professional problem were in all respects unique, solutions would be at best accidental, and therefore have nothing to do with expert knowledge. What we are suggesting, on the contrary, is that there are sufficient uniformities in problems and in devices for solving them ... professionals ... apply very general principles, standardized knowledge, to concrete problems ..."
Armed with this knowledge, professional practice is seen as essentially technical. The best means (that is, expertise) are selected to solve clearly defined ends (that is, unambiguous practice problems).

This dominant model of professional practice is used to understand (or at least describe) how adult educators practice. Its prescriptions for effective practice offer suggestions in areas such as assessing needs, developing objectives, assessing learning outcomes, and administrating institutional units. These prescriptions are generally in the form of principles that are to be applied to situations faced by adult educators. Take, for example, that shibboleth of good practice, assessing the needs of learners. The principle is often stated something like this: "Sponsors of continuing education programs should utilize systematic processes to define and analyze the issues and

"Sponsors of continuing education programs should utilize systematic processes to define and analyze the issues and problems of individuals, groups, and organizations for the purpose of determining learning needs" (Council on the Continuing Education Unit, 1984). While this may seem like a worthwhile goal for practice, it offers little in the way of guidance to educators because it ignores the crucial element of institutional context.

To be sure, there is no shortage of statements of good practice that provide what must seem a rather obvious list of things adult educators ought to be able to do. However, the existence of such lists assumes that there are standard contexts and problems to which these principles can be applied. Herein lies the fatal flaw for adult educators work in a variety of different situations that make radically different demands on their skills, knowledge, and judgment. One of the fundamental problems in conceiving of effective practice as the application of principles to situations is that every principle will mean different things and emerge as different practices in varying contexts. A major reason, then, that the most effective adult educators reject textbook prescriptions for exemplary practice is that the principles are **vacuous** (because they have to apply to all continuing educators, regardless of their circumstances) or **limited** (because they discount the details of the context), or both (Sockett, 1987).

Practice cannot be understood as the application of standardized principles to well-formed problems because many situations faced by adult educators are characterized by uniqueness, uncertainty, or conflicting values. Like other professionals, adult educators generally must make choices about the nature of the problem to be solved as well as how to solve it. Because they continually make choices, as opposed to simply applying principles, a different approach must be used to describe practice. This model should stress the need to be aware of the range of choices open to adult educators and the ways in which they can and do make these choices.

An Emerging Model of Practice

In the past ten years, a new viewpoint about professional practice has emerged (Cervero, 1988). Where the dominant viewpoint sees well-defined problems, this new viewpoint assumes that professionals construct the problem from the situation. Because professionals are always making choices about what problems to solve and how to solve them, this approach stresses the need for professionals to be critically aware of these choices and their implications. The dominant view of professional practice is challenged on two major counts: the notion of a fixed and unambiguous problem and the basis of professional knowledge.

One often hears professionals claim that most of the problems they see are not "in the book." For example, physicians say that many of their patients' symptoms do not fit into familiar categories of diagnosis and treatment. Thus, the most difficult part of their practice is to decide which problem needs to be solved. Once this is accomplished, a treatment can be prescribed or a referral made to a specialist.

Schon (1987) considers this oft-repeated observation to be central to understanding professional practice. He says: "In the varied topography of professional practice, there is a high hard ground overlooking a swamp. On the high ground, manageable problems lend themselves to solution through the application of research based theory and technique. In the swampy lowland, messy confusing problems defy technical solutions. The irony of this situation is that the problems of the high ground tend to be relatively unimportant to individuals or society at large ... while in the swamp lie the problems of greatest human concern" (p. 3). Professionals conduct most of their practice in the swamp of the real-world where problems do not present themselves as well-formed unambiguous structures but rather as messy indeterminate situations.

The second distinguishing characteristic of the emerging viewpoint is the nature and source of professional knowledge. Schon (1983) argues that: "The practitioner has built up a **repertoire** of examples, images, understandings and actions" (p. 138) that come primarily from prior experience. When a professional is trying to make sense of a situation, she **sees** it **as** something already present in her repertoire. This knowledge is not applied in a rule-like fashion but rather functions as a metaphor or exemplar for helping to define the new situation.

Understanding Effective Practice

This emerging viewpoint provides a framework within which to describe effective practice in adult education. Based on this emerging viewpoint, I argue that adult educators' practice must be rooted in a coherent account of its ethical, contextual, and epistemological bases.

Ethical Basis of Practice. Because they seek to change individuals, adult educators (like all educators) are engaged in a normative enterprise. Any attempt to change learners is based on an ideal of what they ought to be, to know, to do, or to feel. This ideal is rooted in beliefs about the goodness or rightness of the new course of action. Herein lies the ethical nature of practice, for educators continually make choices (often implicitly) about the ideal toward which their activities are directed. Therefore, practice can be judged as effective only with respect to a particular ethical framework; practice can be judged as ineffective if it is inconsistent with the tenets of the framework by which it is being evaluated.

Many adult educators act as if there is consensus about the proper ends of their work. However, as fishes do not know they are swimming in water, adult educators are often blinded to the ethical implications of their work by the homogeneous value orientations of the environments in which they work. That is, they are often unaware of the ethical choices being made in practice because everyone who may be involved in a particular situation agrees with their choices. As a result, there is rarely any discussion of the ethical dimensions of practice in informal shoptalk or in the literature regarding good practice. Stripped of this ethical understanding, adult educators are limited to using a technical language to describe their practice, with words such as needs-assessment, performance objectives, collaboration, and teaching style.

In all professions there are differing, if not conflicting, ethical frameworks that guide the work of practitioners. In the same way, adult educators' practice is embedded in a variety of ethical frameworks. The ethical questions that are central to educational practice are: "Why should learners have this knowledge?", "To what ends will this knowledge be put?" and "What model of the learner should guide educational decisions?" The most important decisions adult educators must make in order to answer these questions are who should decide on the content of the educational program and on the basis of what criteria. These ethical choices are not some abstract ideal, but are embedded in the very fabric of practice.

An understanding of adult education practice is impoverished by not discussing its ethical dimensions. Ethical understanding is central to the practice of all professionals and is an important criterion by which they make decisions in many situations. If adult educators are to fully understand and improve their practice, its ethical dimensions must be made explicit in the context of their practical knowledge as well as in the ongoing discussions of good practice in the adult education literature.

Contextual Basis of Practice. Adult educators do not practice in a laboratory where all conditions are controlled save for the educator's actions. If this were true it would be reasonable to construct a description of ideal practices, the completion of which would produce specified results. As we know, however, practice is always conducted in a context composed of varying personalities, shifting expectations, conflicting goals, and limited resources. Because adult educators' practice is rooted in particular sets of circumstances, it would be inappropriate to judge their efforts against some fixed ideal of good practice. Rather, to know whether practice is effective it must be judged by what is best in a given set of circumstances. Excellent practice can not be characterized by a discrete set of knowledge or skills but rather by an understanding of why educators do what they do when they do it. At the root of practice are not measurable techniques, but judgement.

The primary context for adult educators is provided by the institutional setting in which they practice. Adult educators are not independent agents developing programs in ways they alone believe to be most appropriate. Rather, their conception of a target audience, how best to serve it, and what resources are available are conditioned by their particular institutional contexts. Their work is conducted within a discretionary framework set up by the goals and resources of the agency in which they work. The unit in which adult educators work will have different functions depending on the type of institution in which it is located. Thus, its effectiveness will be judged in different ways. Some of these functions may not seen ideal and may even contradict an educator's own vision of what constitutes effective practice. Yet, within an institutional context, these different functions help to define the circumstances within which educators practice.

It would be possible to develop guidelines that can serve as orienting principles for effective practice. However, these guidelines must be **models of** practice. The guidelines will prove useless if they are **models for** adult education practice in the sense of prescriptions of how educators ought to conduct themselves regardless of the specific context. If principles are to be used to guide practice, they must be developed out of actual situations. Context is not an adjunct to the understanding of effective practice; rather, it is interwoven with the very fabric of practice.

Epistemological Basis of Practice. To fully explain effective practice, we must be able to describe how adult educators know how to do what they do. The question that should concern us is: "What (or how) does one need to know in order to be an effective adult educator?" I suggest that we need a way of knowing that connects our plans, techniques, ideals and knowledge to the real-time judgments made in the unique, uncertain, and changing contexts of practice.

Schon (1983, 1987) responds to this need by suggesting that two forms of knowing are central to effective practice, knowing-in-action and reflection-in-action. Many of our spontaneous actions do not stem from a rule or plan that was in the mind before. That is, adult educators constantly make judgments for which they cannot state the rule or theory. Schon calls this **knowing-in-action.** In many cases knowing-in-action will not solve a particular problem because the situations faced by adult educators are unique, uncertain, or marked by conflicting values. Therefore, they need to construct the situation so as to make it solvable. The ability to do this, to **reflect-in-action**, is the core of effective practice.

If effective practice is not to be utterly context-dependent, its epistemology must account for a kind of knowing that can be used in most or all situations. Reflection-in-action is such an epistemology; its use is a key to understanding effective practice in adult education. For example, the entire program development process may be viewed as a form of reflection-in-action in which educators continually frame ambiguous situations so as to make them solvable.

Conclusion

The interrelationship of the ethical, contextual, and epistemological bases of effective practice can be articulated as follows: Effective practice in adult education means making the best judgment in a specific context for a specific set of ethical beliefs. These judgments, which are made as a result of knowing-in-action and reflection-in-action, are evaluated as "best" against what is **possible** in the specific context in which they occur and what is **desirable** within a particular ethical framework.

To improve practice, the abilities of adult educators to make their "best judgments" must be facilitated. This facilitation can be most effective if based on a theory of how adult educators know and how they acquire this knowledge. Their knowing-in-action is acquired from their reflection-in-action undertaken in the indeterminate zones of practice and from the theory and research developed in adult education and other fields. Reflection-in-action generates new knowledge by contributing new examples and understandings to their repertoires. To improve their ability to reflect-in-action, adult educators should describe how they reflect and what that teaches them. As adult educators do this, they can more readily employ that form of knowing in new situations.

Adult education researchers also have a role to play in improving practice. Some of their work should focus on practitioners' practical knowledge and the processes they use to make judgments, the effect of context on these judgments, and the ethical dimensions of these judgments. Researchers can do this by examining their own practice as adult educators or by working collaboratively with practitioners. Benner (1984), Elbaz (1983), and Schon (1983) have offered useful ways to conduct this research.

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METAPHORS AND MEANING OF THE FORMATIVE EXPERIENCE OF ADULTS

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ABSTRACT: The heuristic potential of metaphors for the understanding of the formative experience of adults is explored in a parallel interpretation using Ricoeur's hermeneutics and Lakoff and Johnson's experientialist theory.

In this paper we focus on the heuristic potential of metaphors for the understanding of the adult learning experience. The metaphors are analysed in the context of narratives written by adults to describe their formative experience. It is presumed that the images priviledged in the narrative represent one's past experience of learning and reciprocally have the potential of making that experience more understandable.

In the first part of the paper we shall briefly present the definition and function of metaphor. From two different theoretical positions, hermeneutics and experientialism, we shall attempt to establish in the second and third parts, a basis for the interpretation of metaphor. In each case the method of analysis will be made explicit and the results presented.

DEFINITION AND ROLE OF METAPHOR

To speak metaphorically is to speak of something in the terms of something else. For instance, if one says that the formative experience is a journey, one speaks metaphorically. Two questions should be answered: what is the metaphorical unit, and what is the role of the metaphor? For Aristotle (Poetics 1457 b7) and classical rhetoric, a metaphor is at the level of the word: it is the transposition of a name that belongs to something else. The metaphorical transposition is also seen at the level of the sentence. This entails that, literal meaning is dependant on systems of connotations and networks of interactions. This position is shared by Ricoeur (1977) who tries to establish the role of the word within the broader semantic meaning of statements. Finally, the text, which is a more extensive composition than the sentence, can be seen as metaphorical (Ricoeur, 1977, 1986), since this more complex entity of discourse transposes something else with its organisation or proper coherence.

The metaphor can be used as an ornement of discourse for beauty or pleasure; it is also used to convince or to teach. Besides a weak version of the expressive role of the metaphor which focuses on the aesthetic or unexpected effects of figurative language, there is a stronger thesis which stresses metaphor's poetic role: metaphors allow the utterer to construct the reality which is described. Hence, Ricoeur (1977) stresses the "redescriptive power of the metaphor". Metaphors have a cognitive content; they "inform and clarify in a way which is beyond the scope of any paraphrase" (p.88). The analysis of metaphors which is done in this paper is aimed at understanding the formative process; it presupposes a recognition of the cognitive function of metaphors. In this respect, Ricoeur's hermeneutics (1977, 1986) and Lakoff & Johnson's experientialism (1980) were thaught to provide appropriate theoretical foundations.

HERMENEUTICS

Theory: Ricoeur (1986) describes the primary task of hermeneutics as the reconstruction of the "double work or the text". This means that to interpret a text is to look for the internal meaning of the work as it is structured by language, and to look for the power of the work to create a world which one could inhabit. By text, Ricoeur means principally the production of discourse as a work. The dialectic of understanding and explanation is central to his general theory of interpretation. It involves 1) the distanciation of what is said from the speaker, the interlocutors and the general conditions of production; 2) the explanation of the organisation of meaning in discourse mainly by structural analysis; 3) the disclosure of a possible reference, the world of the text.

Ricoeur establishes the linguistic character of experience; he also sees a reciprocity between narrativity and temporality: what is told happens in time and what happens in time can be narrated. The narrative organizes events and actions in its own time and space -life stories are told, but you live your life- and, through the mediation of symbols and texts, the meaning of experience can be disclosed. Ricoeur makes a parallel between the narrative and the metaphor: in both cases there is semantic innovation. The similitude, which is created either at the level of statements or at the level of discourse (at that level, narrative is a metaphor-text) belongs to the poetic function of language. In creating a new pertinence, language "seeks to redescribe reality by the roundabout route of heuristic fiction" (1977, p.247).

Method: Understanding is mediated by the explanatory procedures of structural analysis. To make possible this mediation, we thought it appropriate to resort to Greimas' method (Groupe d'Entrevernes, 1979). The analysis of a narrative implies a narrative component which is the examination of the sequence of states and of transformations of states, and a discursive component which is the examination of the organisation and interrelations of units of content. The discursive analysis usually follows the narrative analysis and studies the figures which qualify the roles in narrative programs. The procedures are the following: 1) listing units of content, 2) locating the relations between figures, 3) evaluating figurative networks, 4) identifying the courses of figures which manifest narrative programs, and 5) unifying figurative courses in discursive configurations.

The following analysis was done with a narrative in which the formative experience is described as a cruise. This particular text was selected because it developed a metaphor which is a commonplace: experience as a journey. We also have to keep in mind that the narrative is itself a metaphor-text.

Analysis

Figures as presented in the narrative entitled *The Cruise*

figures of narrator	thematic roles	figures of formation	figurative course	figurative configuration
need of competence	.	cruise	.	
desire	.	journey	.	
excitation	.	odyssey	.	
curiosity	. emotional	adventure	.	
enthusiasm	. being	cruise with	.travel .	outward.
satisfaction	.	no destination	.	
deception	.	trajectory	.	
				passage
stop/start again	.			
come back	.			
give up/set out	. traveller	assimilate	.	
again/storms	.	satiate	.	
end of journey	.	invigorate	.nurture.	
new itinerary	.	feed	.	
new world	.			
course content	.			
difficulties	. learner			inward .
know so little	.			
acquired experience		discover	.vision .	
know the learners	.adult educator			

The narrative describes the transformation of the narrator who, desiring to acquire professional competence in adult education, acquires adequate knowledge and experience. Secondary narrative programs describe the sequence of other actions and transformations of the narrator during the graduate program. The discursive analysis shows that the quest of competence is spatialized both inward and outward: the formative experience is associated with travelling toward some new destinations and also with nourishment and vision. The transformation of the actor is accomplished with different roles: the traveller has reached the end of the journey (motion/rest), the emotional being has found fulfillment (desire/satisfaction) and assurance (need of competence/good sailor), the learner has gained experience. However, learning remains to be pursued (end of journey/new itinerary).

Interpretation: To understand the narrative, we have to look for the world which the text discloses. It is to be noticed that the metaphorical figures have a signification in the context of their network and of the narrative itself. The temporal dimensions of the experience of learning are given in the spatial metaphor of the itinerary of a journey. We also understand that although the learner might be highly motivated, there is a great deal to be determined in the course of the action. The formative transformation brings confirmation of competence but it is never totally achieved. The contrast of metaphors related to oppositional dimensions (outward/inward) of transformation suggests that the learner interacts with the world and is formed by it: objects of the outer world are incorporated in life. Formation takes time and motivation; it supposes an interaction of the learner with the world; when accomplished it is not definite.

EXPERIENTIALISM

Theory: To contrast with the hermeneutical approach, we chose to explore the experientialist theory of the metaphor. For Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphors are not viewed primarily as events of language, but rather as a part of the thinking process. What is essential to the metaphor is that it allows one to understand something or experience it in terms of something else.

There are two major categories of metaphors: conventional metaphors are formed in everyday language and are based on perceived correlations in experience; more imaginative and creative metaphors are called new metaphors. Conventional metaphors are structural, orientational or ontological. They have in common a grounding in physical, social or cultural experiences and they also influence our experience and actions.

Lakoff and Johnson agree that metaphors "highlight certain features while suppressing others" and not only entail other concepts, but "very specific aspects of these concepts" (p. 141).

For the experientialist approach, "understanding emerges from interaction, from constant negotiation with the environment and other people" (p.230). The metaphorical imagination with its flexibility does provide the proper categories to communicate unshared experiences; it is central to understanding. To Lakoff & Johnson, metaphors play a role in self-understanding: "A large part of self-understanding is the search for appropriate personal metaphors that make sense of our lives...the process of self-understanding is the continual development of new life stories for yourself" (p.233). Consequently, the experientialist approach provides a certain basis for focussing on the metaphors of narratives on the formative experience.

Method: It is presumed that a metaphor or a metaphorical expression is coherent and that there is a coherence across metaphors in the narrative. The examples which Lakoff and Johnson use to support their theory are at the level of the word (or concept); they provide a guide for the interpretation of metaphors. However, to ensure a systematic analysis, a procedure was established as follows: 1) to identify the main metaphorical concepts and experiential gestalts, 2) to identify other metaphors with their cluster of terms, and their respective concepts, 3) to identify the metaphorical networks and overlapping of concepts, 4) to identify the prototype defining the main metaphorical concept, 5) to complete the analysis with interpretation.

The following analysis was done with a narrative in which the formative experience is described as a mobile. This particular text was selected because its metaphors were not conventional. It was expected that some new meaning might emerge with the effect of what Lakoff and Johnson have called "reverberation" (pp.140-141).

Analysis

Metaphors as presented in the narrative entitled The Mobile

metaphors	metaphorical network in text	associations in text
mobile	it is in motion; it is delicate	Andragogy - the self
work of art	slightest breeze makes it move	the wind: needs
object	composed of elements	expectations
	it has a structure	structure: learned during the course of studies
first element	to construct	studies in educational gérontology
second element:		
highrise	to build	methods & techniques
	to measure	knowledge
	to dig	with taste for research
	to ciment	with judgment
		with autonomy & motivation
third element:		
bouquet of flowers	to cultivate rare, beautiful flowers	mature, happy "developed" person
	adequate light	
	good soil	
	good care	
other elements	to equilibrate	
	to complete	
	to add beauty	

Overlapping metaphorical concepts: direct manipulation of mobile, highrise (know-how); direct and indirect manipulation of bouquet (being) and mobile. Mobile (a work of art) (is alive) bridged with the concept of motion.

Experiential gestalt: prototypical causation.

If we look for a moment at the elements composing the mobile as they are presented in the text, we realize that although there are sufficient expressions at the level of metaphorical networks, only two metaphors are made explicit. We could suppose that we understand the meaning of methods and techniques and of personal attitudes in the formative process by referring to the experience we might have had of construction or of growing flowers. The specificity of those metaphors differentiate the technical dimensions of the learned know-how and the procedural dimensions of becoming of the self. However, the metaphors which present the elements are subsumed under the thematic metaphor of the mobile. Consequently, we could say that we understand the formative experience as a whole, as we understand the making a mobile or the perception we have of such an object. In this instance, the mobile is said to be a work of art. Since it is an entity which is manipulated, it is related to the prototypical concept of causation. However, it is complex, in the sense that, although it is the product of an agent, it is constantly in jeopardy of being destabilized.

Interpretation: The metaphor of the mobile highlights the following conceptual features of the formative experience: there is an involvement of the agent in structuring an object; there is a purpose in regard to change; the product remains fragile; there is an interaction between destabilizing and stabilizing agents. At the end of the text, it is said that "the mobile is always in motion and that it is alive". It might be of interest here to suggest that via a sort of cascade of metaphors, a similarity is created between the formative experience and life experience.

It appears that the term formation is itself metaphorical. Respecting Lakoff & Johnson frame of reference, we could say that the physical experience of shaping (constructing or forming) objects is foundational in relation to the experience of what is expressed as the formation (education) of the self. In this particular instance, what the mobile as a work of art may add with its specificity to the meaning of the formative experience is that it supposes the work of an agent; it is in interaction with the environment; subject to other forces, however slight, the outcome remains fragile; it entails constant transformation.

CONCLUSION

Although it provides an example of the heuristic potential of metaphors, the parallel presented in this research raises the question of the primacy of language or of experience. It also raises the question, both for research and practice, of the relationship between reference and meaning. Understanding the formative experience presupposes that the underlying philosophy of interpretation and of communicative praxis is made explicit.

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Women's leadership style: social power in action

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Abstract: Vermont government women leaders (N=24) were interviewed relative to leadership style. Content analysis of leadership statements was performed. Results indicate that social power concerns rather than personal power concerns were more likely to be expressed. Implications for definition of leadership and the education of adults are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Although women now comprise a large percentage of workers in the work force (Rix, 1987), few women have risen to become heads of major organizations. Consequently, it is understandable that leadership qualities in the past have been characterized in stereotypic masculine qualities: risk taking, independence, assertiveness, self-confidence, strong sense of responsibility, and task oriented (Lindzey & Aaronson, 1985). Furthermore, within the definition of leader is embedded the notion of power involving the relationship of a leader to subordinates. Male leadership styles have often expressed this relationship through dominance, control, and coercion (Burns, 1978).

Recent feminist writers, however, offer a different explanation of power, one characterized by cooperative relationships. They argue that power may have a different context for women, being more an expression of concern and empowerment of others, rather than the power to coerce or exploit others (Bryand, 1984; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1976; Stamm & Ryf, 1984).

Gilligan (1982) further argues that due to the development of personal identity arising from attachment, not separation, women see and use power in a contextual, interconnected way, with personal relationships as the lens through which reality is constructed, including the reality of work.

McClelland (1975) considers power from two perspectives: personal and social. Personal power is described as the wish to dominate others, to be in control in a zero-sum situation. Social power, in contrast, evokes a win-win situation, in which power is used to enrich and empower others. McClelland saw power motivation as developmental, with the expression of social power (we all win together) as being the highest form of expressed power. He also suggested that there may be gender differences in power motivation, and that women, due to socializing forces, may be more likely to express power in the form of social power. For example, he found that women report power fantasies equating power with qualities of giving, care, and interdependence, rather than acts of aggression and independence often found in male power fantasies.

Although this theme of women's discomfort with current power definitions has been a prevailing theme in feminist literature, what has recent research said about gender differences in the exercise of power among leaders? Unfortunately, little attention has been addressed to this issue. In one study (Instone, Major & Bunker, 1983), gender differences in social influence strategies of men and women leaders were examined. Results showed that women made fewer influence attempts, which was interpreted to be due to differences in self-confidence. But may not influence, still being defined from a male perspective, have a different expression for women?

When we do look at the research on gender and leadership, we find that variables such as initiating structure, consideration, subordinate satisfaction, and effectiveness have been utilized (Dobbins & Platz, 1986). When meta-analysis was conducted on research using these variables, few gender differences appeared in real life settings. This finding can be very encouraging to women as they aspire to leadership, but it does not answer the question of the relationship of leadership style and the expression of power.

An equally interesting question relates to the processes through which sex role stereotypes and implicit personality theories about gender differences may bias people's perceptions of who is an appropriate leader and thus may be barriers to women's rise to leadership. A review of media perceptions of women leaders in Australia (Leder, 1986) found that outstanding women were presented in the media through three re-appearing themes: they must work harder than men, they need to balance success with strong interpersonal relations, and they are successful through some sort of luck. Success somehow "happened." In other words, women leaders may not be seen as particularly powerful.

Owen (1986) found a similar pattern in research on leaderless groups, in which female leaders in process journals expressed rhetorical themes of working harder, and self perceptions of being an organizer, but not a leader. They wrote themes of cohesion, egalitarian participation, and togetherness, but did not label their efforts as that of a leader. Consequently, research seems to indicate, even during the '80s, that women are still having difficulty perceiving themselves as leaders, being powerful, and that when they do emerge as leaders, hard work and luck can be attributional explanations.

Indeed, many unanswered questions remain relative to the process by which women lead and their perceptions of female leadership. How do they perceive the leadership role? What is the relationship of leadership style to power and influence?

Method

Twenty-four women in leadership positions in Vermont state government were interviewed, using a holistic case study approach (Cheng, 1987). Questions were asked of their view of leadership, how they would describe their leadership style, what it was like to work for a woman (the Governor of Vermont is a woman), and what qualities women might bring to leadership.

This paper is concerned with motivational profiles that emerged from the interviews, particularly power motivation. Content analysis with respect to motivational themes of achievement, affilitation, and power (McClelland, 1975) was performed. Themes relating to women's contributions to leadership were also extracted.

Results

The average age of the sample was forty-three. The majority (88%) were college graduates with all but one of these having advanced degrees. The majority were married (83%), and of those married all but four had children. Marriages were described as strong and egalitarian. There were no single mothers in the sample. They came to their present leadership postions from a winding, sometimes, interrupted career path that was likely to include work in the the private, non-profit sector, including political and/or government experience. All had been appointed to their present position by the Governor. They were running large departments, with multimillion dollar budgets and large staffs.

The over-arching theme heard by these women in their discussion of how they got things done was through the exercise of social power coupled with thier high need to achieve. Affiliation, or the need to nurture, was less likely to be expressed except in the more abstract terms of protecting the environment, providing services for the poor, the disadvantaged, and minorities.

Achievement motivation was seen in the qualities they believed essential for a leader: a high sense of competence, good self-esteem, being goal-oriented and willing to work hard to achieve these goals, persistence in pursuing the task, and the willingness to take moderate risks. The enjoyed the challenge of a problem; they liked to put pieces together.

But, coupled with this need to do a job and do it well, one heard in a concerted voice, their need to get the job done in a collaborative fashion. Let their voices speak. "I'm consensus builder in leadership. I do a lot of delegating. I also do a lot of asking, from the bottom up, for support. Now, I don't know if that's because we're used to it, because of the multiple roles women play."

"You need people to own things and believe in them in order for you to accomplish them. I thing women understand this, particularly in government. There are many obstacles. It is'nt like in the private sector, where your board of directors decides. In government, you put it out, your decide, then you have to take it to the legislature, then the whole world gets involved, the lobbyists, the press, everyone. It's a process that's a lot different and more challenging and draws on women's natural abilities to build consensus."

Another said, "There's no dichotomy between being people-oriented and task-oriented. I get it done by getting people on a team, helping them set tasks for themselves so that they can see accomplishments. You have to convince people that we all want to go in that direction (social power). My weakness is that I can cover more myself (achievement), but I have to remember to slow down and emotionally support these people (affiliation)."

One spoke of leadership and power in these words: "It takes the sensitivity of knowing when to be powerful in the narrow sense, the male sense. It took me a while to get the hang of that. I've always viewed a leader as not so much somebody who intimidates or compels, but somebody who expresses something that's compelling in itself, articulating something that people want articulated. Because if you can do that and understand what it's about, they will follow where you want to go. It has absolutely nothing to do with getting credit for it. It's not the old male thing that said, 'The best leaders are those that win.' Rather, it's about people saying, 'We did this ourselves.' It has nothing to do with moving forward and seeing a whole bunch of people follow you, which in politics is often called leadership. It has nothing to do with leading charges at all. Not at all like taking the ball and running with it."

In response to qualities that women may bring to leadership positions they spoke again of the mosaic of women's lives. They spoke again and again of the special attributes women bring to leadership which may have been honed and developed in their traditional feminine roles: parenting; organizing and running a house; volunteer work; the ability to juggle several tasks simultaneously; the ability to see patterns, relationships, then integrating and seeing the big picture; being skilled at negotiating, building consensus; paying attention to values, and above all, doing it in a contextual, empowering way.

One said, "Women bring a different perspective. I thing wmen in government are fundamental to making that voice of equality heard. I do think there is a difference in how men and women feel about that issue. I think there are men who understand and support it, but they cannot speak to it the same way women can. Woimen have lived it."

When asked what personal messages would they give to the young woman of today, they again spoke in unison. "Be self-assured enough to do what you want and find what is satisfying to you, but learn to balance your life. Understand you can do it all, but maybe not all at once. Do not be discouraged; try out new avenues. but do not forget what it means to be a woman; do not leave your feminine side outside the corporate door. And, do not live your life for yourself alone. Think and work for others; be an enabler." Thus, in thier messages, they incorporated the motivational themes of acnievement (you can do it), affiliation (balance, nurture, care), and power (get involved, live for others, be an enabler).

Conclusions

Power as expressed by these women can clearly be seen as social in perspective. As Gilligan (1982) has concluded from her research, women's vision of interdependence and connectedness may be the preferred exercise of power for women. This study lens support to this assumption. Women's lives are build around a context, a web of relationships, and the task has been to make sense of these relationships. When women arrive as leaders, they bring all these special qualities with them which they then use in a very empowering way. In the act of connecting, interweaving of many factors, there may be emerging a new style of leadership which builds upon women's traditional qualities to which is added the traditional masculine qualities of assertiveness, independence, and risk taking. Indeed, their leadership style suggests a blending of masculine and feminine stereotypic qualities, similar to leadership qualities other recent researchers have considered essential for the modern corporate world (Kotter, 1988).

Equally important are the models that these Vermont women are giving to other young women. They are saying, "You can do it. You can build on your strengths as a woman. You can combine a career with a private life, although it may take you longer to reach the top. You do not need to use the traditional male model of leading by authority and dominance. Your experiences as women enable you to bring a different, albeit equally valid, perspective to leadership, one that builds on people's strengths and is contextual and relational."

Finally, this sample suggests that perceptions and definitions of leadership may be expanding to include the feminine perspective. Women as leaders may be transforming the nature of leadership, adding to it qualities of consensus building, integration, unity, and support through empowerment.

Educators need to encourage women to develop life-long careers, to work on leadership qualities, to respect women's ways of knowing, and to respect diversity. They need to point out to young women the value of work, the need for mastery and control that a career can bring. They also need to be sensitive to changing sex role stereotypes and the need for accommodation and flexibility. A new model for living is being worked out by both young women and men. Together we all need to appreciate the commonalities of our lives, but also the differences and to applaud them both.

References available upon request.

CULTURAL STUDIES: AN EVOLVING RESEARCH PARADIGM?

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Abstract

Neo-Marxist British cultural studies grew out of foundational work in the sociology of literature and social history undertaken in the late 1950s. Subsequently, Richard Johnson reformulated this 'culturalist' concept to take account of insights from structuralism and ethnography. The import of this tradition for adult education research and practice is explored.

Background and purpose of study

North American adult education seems reluctant to treat as problematic concepts such as "culture" and "consciousness", although it is obvious that culture is regarded as important for adult educators to consider and discuss. That there is a growing interest in culture and its significance for adult education research is indicated by the increasing number of references to the cultural dimension of learning and of education. This trend is notable, for example, in the work of Arlene Fingeret (1983a; 1983b), Jack Mezirow (1981, 1985) and Dan Pratt (1988). In turn, the focus on the cultural reflects the diverse influence on adult education of people like Paulo Freire, as well as those whose work has been framed by the new sociology of education, for example British adult educators Nell Keddie, Tom Lovett, Jane Thompson and Sally Westwood, and Amercian radical educators Michael Apple, Stanley Aronowitz, Henry Giroux and Philip Wexler.

In broad terms, these authors derive many of their ideas from the British, neo-Marxist, cultural studies tradition, some of them directly so, others by more indirect routes. In Popkewitz's (1984) well known classification of three educational paradigms, cultural studies is located within the category *Critical sciences: social relations as historical expression.*

What might adult education have to learn from the cultural studies emphasis on historical analysis of cultural and social forms as they affect individual subjectivity and collective political action? In its exploration of this question, our paper offers an introduction to cultural studies. Its purpose is to evaluate the potential of cultural studies to inform critical-social research and socially transformative practice in adult education.

Research approach and theoretical perspective

Given our differing views, we adhere to no single theoretical perspective, although generally speaking our research falls within a critical paradigm. This particular study, a conceptual analysis of the British cultural studies tradition, involved two stages. First, we undertook a brief analysis of the work of Richard Hoggart, Edward Thompson, and Raymond Williams; it is on the "culturalist" tradition founded by these authors that contemporary cultural studies rests. Second, we attempted a detailed critical analysis of key texts by Richard Johnson, director of the Birmingham Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies since 1979. Johnson is, perhaps, the single-most important proponent of modern cultural studies and its best known theorist. Both aspects of this research are referred to here.

'Culture and society': The foundations

While cultural studies has a long and complex history dating back to at least the eighteenth century, the manifestation we consider here is a particularly British phenomenon of the 1950s, best explained by way of a short historical detour. Between the two World Wars, a limited number of scholarship children from the working class (overwhelmingly boys) were admitted to Oxford and Cambridge. Following World War II, some of these people, including Hoggart, Thompson and Williams, were employed in university based adult education, which at that time had close links to the Workers' Educational Association.

Their close engagement with a working class audience prompted personal and intellectual revaluations, and initiated what was to be a reassessment of the two overlapping spheres of literature and politics. First, the work of Hoggart (1957) and Williams (1958/1963) acts to rescue culture from earlier elitist or narrowly literary uses. Hoggart, for example, emphasises a relation between the traditional values of an albeit somewhat romanticised working class, and culture. Williams, in turn, shows how the notion of culture then held was a product of class determination: to the detriment of the working class and their culture, "culture" had become synonymous with the high elitist vision of the dominant classes. Second, the new approach to social history exemplified in the work of Edward Thompson (1963/1968) broke with the base/superstructure metaphor of orthodox Marxism and its mechanistic assumption that the socio-cultural is economically determined. Drawing on the Marxist notion of a "class for itself" Thompson looks to the values actively held by working people to inform his sense of both class and individual agency.

What the work of Hoggart, Thompson, and Williams offers is a translation of their personal experiences as intellectuals with working class roots into a research approach that affirmed the values and beliefs of their class. In reclaiming for the working class a sense of morally informed agency, they reclaim a normative task for themselves as politically committed intellectuals. The commitment to a socialist agenda, however differently this socialism is defined, is present throughout their work.

Reformulations: Richard Johnson

Originally an economic historian, Richard Johnson will be most familiar to adult educators for the classic study (1980b) *'Really useful knowledge': radical education and working-class culture, 1790-1848*. Johnson's work is significant because his attempts to come to terms with the disparate strands that go to form cultural studies both chart and reflect its changing topography. In Johnson's most recent attempt to offer a theoretical account of cultural studies, he moves away from the close connnection to specifically working-class culture evinced in the works of Hoggart, Thompson, and Williams. While its affiliation with a specific class is diminished, this later work still retains a broadly defined political component which also considers the implications of its own moves toward formal definition. Throughout, Johnson's work is informed by various themes that weave in and out of his texts: the tensions between humanism and structuralism; a concern with an actively construed human subjectivity;

an acknowledgement of agency, struggle and politics.

In *Culture and the historians*, Johnson (1980a) offers a deliberately critical history of cultural studies in order to prepare the way for a considered "theoretical detour" (p. 70). He argues that there exist two periods of creativity in historical studies of the working class, their lives and politics: 1860-1920, and from the late 1950s onward. Between these two periods, he identifies a steady movement away from 'orthodox', 'vulgar' Marxism. This move begins with the work of two members of the Communist Party Historians' Group, Maurice Dobb and Dona Torr, and is completed in that of Christopher Hill and Thompson. This path to the break with economism heralds the emergence of what Johnson is to term the "culturalist" paradigm of cultural studies.

The influx of Continental theory in the 1960s and 1970s presented a direct challenge to the indigenous, English neo-Marxism of the latter. While it is not possible to summarize the debate within the New Left here, the culturalist position was attacked for its alleged atheoreticism and romanticism. Its opponents, in contrast, stressed the primacy of theory, usually from an Althusserian, structuralist perspective. Arguing that neither of these approaches, "taken on its own", is adequate, Johnson poses a series of theoretical addresses which he takes up in *Three problematics: elements of a theory of working-class culture*.

Drawing on the very structuralism he seeks to supercede, Johnson (1980c, p. 201) defines 'problematics' as a 'definite theoretical structure', comprised of concepts which organize (anything from science to an individual text) by asking some and suppressing other kinds of questions. The three problematics are defined as follows. The first problematic, that of orthodox Marxism, takes 'class' and 'class consciousness' as key organizing concepts. The second, exemplified by Thompson and Williams, either replaces 'consciousness' with 'culture' or it at least forces a reworking of the former, although both are still coupled to class. In the third problematic, a loosely Althusserian structuralism, the class/consciousness couplet is replaced by that of 'ideology' and either of 'mode of production' or 'social formation'.

In his conclusions, Johnson affirms the insistence on a notion of consciousness similar to that of Marx in *The German ideology*, the active consciousness which distinguishes architect from bee. Consciousness arises in every sphere of existence, although predominant among these are economics and politics. In turn, these two points support Johnson's (p. 234) argument that "culture" is a category of analysis dealing with the "way of life of a particular class, group, or social category" or "the complex of ideologies that are actually adopted as moral preferences or principles of life" [original emphasis]. Culture as category, particularly "the culturalist insistence on the production of self or self-making" protects against functionalism and refutes any simple identification between economic classes and cultural forms (pp. 234-235).

In his analysis of the relations between economic classes, ideology and political forms, Johnson stresses both reproduction and contestation: "capital's demand for particular forms of labour power", and working class people's "search for a secure location" within a dependent relationship. For Johnson, the outcome of contestation, or "necessary struggle", ultimately depends upon the "existence of socialist organization with an integral relation to proletarian conditions and working-class cultural forms."

However, it is not clear to us the precise degree to which Johnson sees working class culture as tied to the oppositional political practice that articulates "the task of making fundamentally punishing conditions more inhabitable" (p. 237).

It is against this all too abbreviated summary that we turn to Johnson's (1983/1986-87) major attempt to explain and theorize cultural studies. *What is cultural studies anyway?* is a far-reaching essay that retraverses and expands upon the themes we have isolated above as well as others we lack space to discuss here. For now, we focus on the following interrelated areas: (1) a revised definition of cultural studies and its object; (2) his model of the circulation and consumption of cultural products; (3) a newly formulated three problematics.

From the start, Johnson makes clear that he is offering a revised definition of cultural studies sensitive to the politics of knowledge in a neo-conservative era. Cultural studies is now defined as "about the historical forms of consciousness or subjectivty, or the subjective forms we live by, or, in a rather perilous compression, perhaps a reduction, the subjective side of social relations" (p. 43). His notion of consciousness remains, broadly speaking, that of Marx and Engels in *The German ideology*. It is coupled with a notion of subjectivity in which the active elements of impulses "move" people in ways they may be unconscious of. Johnson relates this unconscious move-ing to the structuralist insight that "subjectivities are produced, not given, and are therefore the objects of inquiry" (P. 44) rather than starting points. Later, he suggests that the object of cultural studies is "the social life of subjective forms at each moment of their circulation" [original emphasis] (p. 62).

In his attempt to explain the "circuit of the production, circulation and consumption of cultural products", Johnson identifies four distinct moments that involve characteristic changes of form; each moment, however, is dependent on the others. These four moments in sequence are production, texts, readings, and lived cultures. As we read this model, Johnson appears to be suggesting, in structuralist or semiotic guise, that the moment he identifies as "reading" is not simply a moment of consumption. A reading is also a act of production.

Production and readings take place under "conditions" that are both material (concerned with social relations) and cultural (concerned with the social milieux of lived cultures). Material conditions refer then to the economic mode of production and commodification; cultural conditions refer to the production and circulation of subjective forms. Thus, in the process of consumption, commodities can acquire cultural meanings differentiated according to, among other things, the context of reception. For example, through a process of abstraction, a car moves from being an idea to anything from a status symbol to a means of getting from one point to another.

Permeating the essay is a textualist metaphor which we believe complicates any attempt to simplify and present the model on any other terms. Textualism is the second of the three reformulated problematics, or perspectives, Johnson uses to explain phases of his model. The first perspective, production, draws on the systematic approach to cultural production of the sociology of literature and the concern with mass communications of the Frankfurt School. All these works take as their basis the theoretical standpoint of production in which cultural production is assimilated to the model of capitalist production in general. However for Johnson, these accounts fail as a complete explanation because they tell us little of the subjective consumption production cycle. The second, textualism, draws heavily on literary theory including formalism, structuralism, post-Saussurean linguistics, and semiology. Given Johnson's argument that the humanities disciplines are already cultural studies in embryo, he finds in literary analysis promise of a careful and systematic description of subjective forms. In particular, he looks to textualism's theorization of subjectivity and its relation to texts: narratives imply or construct a position from which they are to be read. What textualism lacks, according to Johnson, is concern for context: "No subjective form every acts on its own." Most important, there is no account of "*the subjective aspects of struggle*" when people read the social text to "constitute themselves politically" as "conscious political agents" This leads inevitably to the third problematic or perspective, the focus on lived culture. Here he looks to ethnography "to grasp the more *concrete* and more private moments of cultural circulation." [original emphasis] (Pp. 67-69). Obviously ethnography lacks a sense of public forms; it stresses the cultural productivity of everyday life, but ignores the material context of that productivity.

In summary, each perspective illumines a particular aspect of the cultural circuit. But taken on its own, any one is inadequate as an account of the whole. While Johnson argues that each approach implies a different view of the politics of culture that reflect theoretical incompatibilities between approaches, he argues they need each other. His point is that if these approaches acknowledge each other in order to come up with a more adequate account of cultural production, both disciplinary and political boundaries will need to be dissolved. Moreover, effective theoretical alliances prefigure effective political ones.

Towards a critical-social adult education

How, then, can cultural studies inform adult education research and practice? Traditionally, post-World War II North American adult education has assimilated its foundational disciplines to a behavioural-functional model. This model incorporates normative assumptions about the soundness of a liberal, capitalist economy and the opportunities it provides. A basic assumption it holds is that people are dysfunctional if they do not, or cannot fit in to their society. Even studies most sympathetic to cultural difference, many of them intensely concerned with helping people, show the influence of this model: they look to how peoples' culture *impedes* their development in present-day society, rather than vice versa.

What the cultural studies paradigm offers is a more genuinely humane picture of the relations between people and their social and cultural *milieux*. Grounded as it is in a more interpretive and hermeneutic stance, cultural studies suggests that if the perspectives on which it draws can come to theoretical rapprochement, then a more adequate picture of the circuit of cultural production will be possible. Adult education can at least learn from this strategy. What we as adult educators need to understand and should be particularly excited about is that inherent in the whole cultural studies approach is a sense of human agency: active learning human beings rather than passive recipients or misfits. This does not mean that cultural studies is in any way immaculate. For example, we disagree among ourselves about the precise significance of the extent to which the unconscious motivations of people can be brought to light, although we agree that there is an implicit critical pedagogy in cultural studies.

The significance of this study is, therefore, twofold. First, it provides an introduction to a difficult theoretical area which adult education inevitably will have to engage if it is to be treated seriously as a social science discipline. Second, it suggests that adult education needs similarly to pay attention to the central role that cognitive processes (consciousness and subjectivity) and critical pedagogies (action for social transformation) play in both social and political theory, and in society.

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SOME CRITICAL THINKING ABOUT CRITICAL THEORY AND ITS RELEVANCE FOR ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE

by

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ABSTRACT: This paper explores the relevance of Critical Theory, particularly as articulated by Jürgen Habermas, for an emancipatory practice of adult education. It argues that, even though questions remain about the universalism of Habermas's concept of communicative rationality, his work has already given access to arguments for a emancipatory practice of adult education that are more convincing than those provided by Paulo Freire.

Among some adult educators, mainly associated with academia, there is a growing interest in Critical Theory. At this stage it provides a significant (but not the only) source of theoretical support for a transformative pedagogy that is concerned with overcoming, through radical social change, domination and repression.

This proceedings paper first provides a very brief historical sketch of Critical Theory as it has emerged from the Frankfurt School of Social Research. Next, it explores ways in which the research project of Jürgen Habermas, Critical Theory's most notable contemporary exponent, provides more secure theoretical grounds for Paulo Freire's emancipatory pedagogy. The analysis then focuses on how Habermas's work has been incorporated in the field of adult education to-date. Finally, the limitations and possibilities of Habermas's project are discussed with a view to realizing a more sensitized reception of Critical Theory within modern adult education practice.

A more substantial essay[1], exploring the issues in far greater detail than is possible within the conference proceedings, will be made available on request.

Historical Sketch

Although there are a number of critical theories which combine to make up a Critical Social Science, contemporary Critical Theory is largely identified with the *Frankfurt School for Social Research* founded in the 1920's by left-wing intellectuals who had become just as disillusioned with the bureaucratic state capitalism of Moscow as with western corporate capitalism. While retaining the emancipatory intent of Marxism, they abandoned its explanation of capitalism's historical trajectory and its identification of a working class constituency as the inevitable source of fundamental revolutionary change. Theodor Adorno and Max Horkheimer were the most distinguished theorists of the Frankfurt School's early years. During the 1960's, Herbert Marcuse became the best known intellectual and social activist associated with the tradition. Jürgen Habermas is its most prominent contemporary theorist.

Adorno and Horkheimer, in particular, were concerned with developing the critique of instrumental technical rationality (already identified by Weber) that pervades a modern overly administered society. They were to demonstrate how it serves to shape individual consciousness so that what appears to us as commonsensical strategic actions often mask particular interests inimical to human emancipation. Thus, a major task for critical theory is to explore, in their totality, these particular interests and the coercive strategies which sustain them.

In the *Dialectic of Enlightenment*,[2] the critical theory of Adorno and Horkheimer took a decidedly pessimistic turn. According to Thomas McCarthy, "critical theory became resignative; it could at most unmask the unreason at the heart of what passed for reason without offering any positive account of its own".[3] It had given up on the project of forging a sound linkage between an analysis of modern society, rationality, and the prospects for human emancipation. Adorno, especially, looked to autonomous art - the aesthetic dimension - as the primary location of emancipatory learning experiences through which one could resist the effects of bourgeois commodification and mass culture.

Marcuse never gave in to the despondency of Adorno and Horkheimer, but his theorizing concedes to their position on the eclipse of reason in combatting the unrelenting pervasiveness of a totally administered society. Hence his appeal to resistance through negation in the closing statements of *One Dimensional Man*:

> Thus it [Critical Theory] wants to remain loyal to those who, without hope, have given and give their life to the Great Refusal.[4]

Subsequently, Jürgen Habermas has sought to retrieve *rationality* as central to Critical Theory. His thorough-going research project, culminating thus far in the *Theory of Communicative Action*,[5] is intended to ensure that his critical theory is *rationally* consistent with the emancipatory possibilities it holds out.

On Habermas and Freire

Several adult educators have suggested Habermas's work is particularly relevant to the emancipatory pedagogy of Paulo Freire.[6] So far, however, the conceptual links that might exist between Habermas and Freire have not been spelled out. In order to indicate the significance of Habermas's work for adult education, the following analysis makes one of these links clear.[7] It argues that Habermas's distinction between purposive rationality and communicative rationality permits a more defensible specification than Freire himself provides of what an emancipatory pedagogy is, and why it is necessary.[8]

Aside from the broader, more obvious, common concern that Freire and Habermas have for themes like freedom, justice, and truth, they share another concern that makes their work even more commensurable. Both have endeavoured to develop a theoretical foundation for an emancipatory social practice.

For Habermas, the task has been to develop a normative foundation for Critical Theory. The hope of the early Frankfurt School was to develop a critique of modern society from the ethical standpoint of a possible "emancipated society". From the outset, this project was problematic. Critical Theory's relentless critique of "instrumental rationality," as the modern manifestation of domination, left it in a very tenuous position. Unable to articulate an alternative conception of rationality to replace the instrumental notion it disavowed, Critical Theory was left without a way to vindicate its own normative standards. Habermas's theoretical project can be understood largely as a response to this dilemma. For Habermas, "[t]he theory of communicative action is . . . the beginning of a social theory concerned to validate its own critical standards."[9]

For Freire, the task has been to develop a theoretical justification for his emancipatory pedagogy. Freire developed the primary features of his emancipatory pedagogy in Brazil during the early 1960's. This was an interesting time in Brazilian history. Rapid modernization had left room for political and pedagogical experimentation. Although this context was conducive for the development of his eminently practical pedagogy, there was little pressure at this time for Freire to substantiate the veracity of his underlying intentions. This all changed with the military coup in 1964. Freire quickly recognized not only that his pedagogy was political, but that it required a theory to explain what it was and why it was imperative. Like the Critical Theorists, Freire was confronted with the problem of laying out the theoretical foundations of his practical project. Freire's pedagogy, too, has shown great concern for the "validation of its own critical standards."

While Freire and Habermas faced a similar problem, the paths they took in response were very different. The path Freire followed led him to conceptualize the foundations of his pedagogy largely in terms of the human being's relationship to the objective world. For Freire, there are two basic relationships a human being can have with the world. On the one hand, he or she can assume a passive or fatalistic attitude towards the world. In this instance, the individual takes on the characteristics of the object. "Submerged in reality", the fatalistic human being is unable either to gain a clear perception of, or to exercise control over, her of his world and history. People in this state are passive recipients of language. For them, the spoken or written word is empty of meaning and content. They live in a "culture of silence".

On the other hand, people can assume an active and critical attitude towards the world. In this instance, the human being takes on the characteristics of the subject in interaction with the objective world. Critically aware of reality, the individual in this state is able to transform his or her world through action. Freire identifies this ability to reflect and to act as praxis. Rather than being silent, people in this state are active proprietors of language. For them the spoken and written word is the means for "self-expression and world expression, of creating and re-creating, of deciding and choosing and ultimately participating in society's historical process."[10] It is this latter relationship between the human and the objective world that Freire claims as the goal of his emancipatory pedagogy.

Freire justifies this goal (and, by implication, his pedagogy) by arguing that people are naturally beings of praxis. The truth of this nature is immediately obvious to individuals who have achieved it. It is an *a priori* (an already given truth that is the ground and condition for truth itself) that is intrinsically recognizable by a critical and self-reflective being. When people are oppressed and objectified by others, however, to the point that they actually internalize the limited and unauthentic image of themselves as passive and ignorant, they lose sight of their true nature. The consequence of not being able to clearly perceive reality is that the oppressed cannot apprehend their "natural vocation" as beings of praxis. Liberated people do not have this problem. Critically and actively engaged with the world, they are able to accurately perceive the truth, not just of their own nature, but of an emancipatory pedagogy as well.

Despite a deep-felt affinity they have for the intentions of Freire, many contemporary adult educators remain unconvinced by his argument for the necessity of emancipatory pedagogy. Like most people of the modern age, adult educators are deeply suspicious of positions that claim the status of *a priori* (already given) validity. Several of Freire's commentators question the basis of Freire's claim that people are "naturally" beings of praxis.[11] Bowers, for instance, suggests that Freire's notion of human nature betrays an uncritical acceptance of such modern concepts as progress, individualism, rationality, and freedom. In Bower's words:

> [Freire's] comments about the need for people to express their humanity by exercising control over their own historical destiny ("to re-invent society, to make history") reflects the Western Enlightenment attitude toward the historically progressive nature of rational thought.[12]

Bowers questions whether the notion of rationality implicit in Freire's work is as desirable as he claims. As Bowers observes, "[t]he same pattern of thought, when carried to an extreme, is expressed in the activities of technocrats who have reified the power of abstract-theoretical thought."[13] Concerns such as these indicate that the problem of providing adequate normative foundations for emancipatory pedagogy is still much at issue for adult educators.

The path that Jürgen Habermas took towards the problem of providing normative foundations for Critical Theory was very different from that taken by Freire. Habermas realized very early that Critical Theory could no longer secure a foundation for its claims, *a priori*. The problem, however, is that the foundations of Critical Theory are not amenable to what is normally considered to be rational vindication. Concepts such as freedom and justice, that form the base of the Frankfurt School's critique, are not observable facts but norms specifying the way people should live together. Adorno and Horkheimer recognized that the validity of these norms was inaccessible to the means-to-an-end reasoning which dominates modernity. Rather than doubting the veracity of the "emancipated society", however, they posited that instrumental reason itself was limited and incomplete. Despite their denunciation of instrumental reason, Horkheimer and Adorno were unable to articulate an alternative concept of reason flexible enough to warrant the normative standards of Critical Theory.

After a good deal of effort of his own,[14] Habermas determined that the Frankfurt theorists were unable to explicate a more adequate conception of reason because of their reliance on the paradigm of the philosophy of consciousness. This theoretical paradigm conceives human existence solely in terms of the subject's relationship to the objective world--primarily, one in which the subject endeavors to control the world. It is difficult, given this conceptual framework, to understand reason other than in instrumental terms. Concepts, or courses of action, are judged as rational only to the degree that they enhance the subject's ability to assert its control over the objective world.

According to Habermas, the only way to escape the limitations of instrumental reason is to turn away from the paradigm of the philosophy of consciousness.[15] He contends that the paradigm of language offers a basis from which it is possible to develop a more comprehensive notion of rationality. He calls this communicative rationality.

Rather than conceptualizing existence just in terms of the individual subject's relationship to the objective world, the paradigm of language enables us to conceptualize existence in much broader terms. Habermas contends that, as speaking beings, there are four kinds of validity claims we make, each of which specifies a different relationship people can have to their world. Very briefly these claims are: 1)truth claims which refer to the relationship between the subject and the objective world, 2)rightness claims which refer to the relationship between the subject and her or his social world, 3)authenticity claims which refer to the relationship the subject can have with his or her own inner-self, and 4)comprehensibility claims which refer to the relationship a subject has to language. Each of these types of claims are subject to validation.[16]

In Habermas's conception, the validity of a claim is established when consensus is reached among participants in discourse about its validity. Rationality, in this instance, is contingent, not on the ability of a claim, or course of action, to exact control of the world (instrumental rationality), but on whether or not discourse participants agree that it is valid (communicative rationality). Each of the participants must have equal opportunity to raise and criticise validity claims. The only permissible force allowed in a process of determining validity is the force of the better argument. Any external coercion that would dissuade a participant (who might possess a strong argument for or against a claim) from speaking freely would undermine the rationality of the final consensus. Communicative rationality carries within it a demand for equity.[17]

Habermas's move to the paradigm of language, and his development of the notion of communicative rationality, permit a significant strengthening of the normative foundations of Paulo Freire's pedagogy. Because it is already intensely communicative, the goal of Freire's pedagogy can be reconfigured in terms of communicative rationality without significantly effecting its most important elements. Rather than enabling humans to achieve their true nature as beings of praxis, his pedagogy would aim to develop the rationality potential of communicative situations.

By reframing the goal of Freire's pedagogy in this way, it becomes possible to assert that it is imperative without adopting his rather dubious conceptual strategy of linking it with an *a priori* notion of human nature. Instead of using *a priori* evidence, Habermas expounds his claim that communicative rationality (and the communicative ethics it implies) are universal and imperative in three different ways.

1. Habermas contends that communicative rationality is presupposed by the function of human communication oriented towards reaching agreement. He draws on the science of formal-pragmatics to "rationally reconstruct[s] universal rules and necessary presuppositions of speech actions"[18] and then, from this reconstruction, to describe "nonnaturalistic standards for normal, that is, undisturbed communication". He calls this "normal" communicative situation the *ideal speech situation*.

2. This "normal" communicative situation can be checked against situations of distorted discourse. Pathologies that occur in individuals can be described in terms of distorted communication. Anthropogenesis and ontogenesis can be described as collective and individual acquisition of communicative competence.

3. The principal features of the modern age can be diagnosed as manifestations of distorted communication. The notion of communicative rationality can account for weaknesses in other sociological theories of modernity.[19]

Habermas, himself, has followed each of these tracks to develop an impressive body of evidence in favour of communicative rationality. Freire's pedagogy would be far better undergirded by the concept of communicative rationality than by the normative foundations that emerge from his reliance on the philosophy of consciousness.

Habermas's categorical distinction between instrumental rationality and communicative rationality provides a new basis from which to assert what an emancipatory pedagogy is, and why it is necessary. His thorough-going research program continues to offer evidence for the notion of communicative rationality. It provides a powerful theoretical grounding for a transformative pedagogy that aims to overcome social domination and repression.

Critical Commentary and Concluding Remarks

The reception of Critical Theory in adult education, especially that of Habermas, has not been conducive to furthering emancipatory prospects outlined in the preceding section. Some writers have misleadingly invoked Critical Theory, to justify a psychologistic emphasis on the individual learner and, hence, individuation, by-passing the essence of its communicative intent. They emphasize individual enlightenment at the expense of social enlightenment and, thus, do not offer us the prospects of a pedagogy for social change. Their writings have more to do with the concerns of humanistic psychology than a critical social science. In expunging from their appropriation of Critical Theory a critique of advanced capitalist society and an examination of the emancipatory potential of genuinely democratic participatory communicative action, they effectively evade its ethical and political implications for a transformative pedagogy.

The more recent appreciation of Critical Theory's project as a critique of technical rationality and the coercive structures of an increasingly administered modern society have been offset by the manner of its promotion. It has been singled out as a novel, somewhat esoteric, methodology for formal presentations by experts who may or may not have any connection to the radical tradition of the field. The danger of this kind of vangardism or "little Leninism", a tendency deplored by critical social theorists like Gramsci and Luxemburg, is that the intended audience will, at best, remain indifferent to the practical implications of Critical Theory for an emancipatory pedagogy.

With regard to Habermas's outstanding project, some commentators who share his emancipatory concerns question the overall endeavour to consolidate the primacy of rationality within Critical Theory. For them, the power of reason is over-stated, even though they would agree with Habermas's critique of a philosophy of consciousness (inherent to Freire's theory) which gives a privileged status to the interpretation of disinterested observers (i.e., via a transcendental ego). The over-arching explanatory intent of the notion of communicative rationality and the ideal speech situation detaches theory from the practical realities of everyday life. It is thought to be too idealized, invoking a quest for a utopian state of affairs, a metaphysical abstraction. From this radical deconstructionist perspective, effective resistance to technocratic rationality and emancipatory aspirations are not realizable through reference to conceptual blue-prints. Rather, an emancipatory practice would require an on-going careful, courageous, engagement with the contradictions, opportunities, setbacks, and so on which make up the flux of everyday life. There is no saving message via an over-arching concept such as communicative rationality, or grand theory, from which the validity of all human discourse and its emancipatory potential can be assessed. To cite from Bernstein (on Rorty) in this regard:

> The appeal to something like a rational consensus has always been used to block, stifle, or rule out revolutionary turns in the conversation. Habermas, in Rorty's view, fails to realize that he is just giving expression to the old positivist hope that we can once and for all decide what to count as legitimate and illegitimate (or meaningless) discourse.[20]

This kind of criticism is at the core of differences between contemporary critical theory, á la Habermas, and post-modernist, or deconstructionist, thinkers such as Derrida, Foucault, and Rorty, whose writings mirror the philosophies of Nietzsche, Heidigger, and Kierkegaard.

Habermas's willingness to engage in respectful dialogue with his most serious critics has provided us with a significant corpus of writings which confirm the relevance of his theoretical project to our present situation. However we ultimately assess the sufficiency of Habermas's response to his critics, he has already given us access to more convincing arguments for an emancipatory practice of adult education. From here we can devise, with greater confidence, an alternative pedagogical discourse and appropriate strategies for resistance to coercion and repression. In an immediate sense, contemporary Critical Theory raises questions for us about the complicity of modern adult education practice in reinforcing an ethos of technical rationality within an already overly managed contemporary society.

Notes

1. M. Collins and D. Plumb, *The Relevance of Habermas to a Critical Practice of Adult Education*, (University of Saskatchewan: Adult Education Research Unit, 1989).
2. M. Horkheimer and T. Adorno, T., *Dialectic of Enlightenment*. (New York: Herder and Herder, 1972).
3. T. McCarthy, "Translators Introduction." In J. Habermas, *The Theory of Communicative Action*, Vol. 1., (Boston: Beacon Press, 1984), p. *xix*.
4. H. Marcuse, *One Dimensional Man*, (Boston: Beacon Press, 1964), p. 257.
5. J. Habermas, *The theory of Communicative Action (Vols. 1-2)*. (Boston: Beacon Press, 1984-1987).
6. See M. Collins, "Jürgen Habermas's Concept of Communicative Action and its Implications for Adult Learning," in *AERC Conference Proceedings* (Tempe: Arizona State University, 1985), pp. 102-108; and C. Griffin, "Critical Thinking and Critical Theory in Adult Education," in, *AERC Conference Proceedings* (Leeds, Great Britain: University of Leeds, 1988), pp. 176-180. See also D. Misgeld, "Emancipation, Enlightenment, and Liberation: An Approach Toward Foundational Inquiry into Education." *Interchange, 6(3)*, 1975, p. 23-37; and J. O'Neill, "Decolonization and the Ideal Speech Community: Some Issues in the Theory and Practice of Communicative Competence," in J. Forester (Ed.), *Critical theory and public life*, (Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1985), pp. 57-76.
7. For a more complete examination of this link see, D. Plumb, "The Emancipatory Significance of The Work of Jürgen Habermas for Adult Education." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Saskatchewan, 1989) and D. Plumb, "Communicative Ethics and Adult Education." (awaiting publication, 1989).
8. This, it must be observed, has very important implications for adult education. Freire's conception of an emancipatory pedagogy, with its normative goals of truth, freedom, and justice, opposes the technical pedagogical forms that dominate contemporary adult education via their instrumental goals of efficiency and productivity. Despite the scepticism of many adult educators, Freire's pedagogy remains a robust competitor of technical pedagogy for the hearts and minds of adult educators. A serious strengthening of emancipatory pedagogy's capacity to compete *theoretically* against its technicist rival has the potential to change the dominating beliefs of adult education.
9. Habermas, 1984, p. *xxxix*.
10. P. Freire, *Education for critical consciousness*. (New York: Seabury Press, 1973), p. 17.
11. The theoretical foundations of Freire's work have been attacked from a number of perspectives. For a sampling of these critiques consult P. Berger, *Pyramids of Sacrifice: Political Ethics and Social Change*. (New York: Basic Books, 1975); C. Bowers, "Linguistic Roots of Cultural Invasion in Paulo Freire's Pedagogy," *Teacher's College Record, 84(4)*, 1983, pp. 935-953; J. Walker, "The End of Dialogue: Paulo Freire on Politics and Education," in R. Mackie, (Ed.), *Literacy and Revolution: The Pedagogy of Paulo Freire*, (New York: Continuum, 1986); and F. Youngman, *Adult Education and Socialist Pedagogy*, (London: Croom Helm, 1986).
12. Bowers, 1983, p. 937.
13. Bowers, p. 941.
14. J. Habermas, *Knowledge and human interests*. (Boston, Beacon Press, 1971).
15. Habermas, 1984, pp. 386-398.
16. Habermas, pp. 302-309.
17. Habermas, p. 19.
18. Habermas, p. 138.
19. Habermas, pp. 138-140.
20. R. Bernstein, *Beyond Objectivism and Relativism*, (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvannia Press, 1983), p. 198.

Using Individual Differences to Design a Typology of Learning Styles

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Abstract

Cluster analysis was explored as a statistical tool for preserving individual variations in the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data related to learning styles and the teaching-learning transaction. A learning style typology produced by this procedure is described.

Introduction

> The calculation of an average is designed to eliminate the "accidents" of the environment; the determination of the "average situation" is to exclude individual variations....An inference from the average to the concrete particular case is hence impossible. (Lewin, 1935, p. 68)

Researchers at the Kellogg Center for Adult Learning Research at Montana State University have attempted to identify the constructs underlying learning styles in a number of adult groups. To accomplish this, an established learning style instrument, the Canfield Learning Style Inventory (CLSI), has been administered to a adults in a variety of programs such as tribally controlled community colleges, military programs, continuing education programs, and undergraduate courses. Resulting scores have been analyzed in comparison to a number of variables and subjected to factor analysis. In addition, adults who have completed the CLSI have been interviewed to ascertain their interpretation of the results of the CLSI and their perceptions of their learning styles.

A disturbing problem throughout this research has been the tendency to *loose* the individuality of the learner in the means of the group. The tendency to use inferential statistics based on computations made from the means of the groups of individuals seems inappropriate when the very object of the study is to examine how individuals differ from one another. The study of individual differences as expressed through personal learning styles calls for a mode of analysis that preserves the individual as the entity of the analysis.

Previous analysis at the Center using analysis of variance techniques with the data collected on Native American learners failed to disclose discernible learning style patterns among this group. Average scores of the Native American students showed little difference from the CLSI norms established with students from the community college system in Kansas City. Moreover, when CLSI scores were compared across reservations, significant differences existed on more than one-third of the factors. Likewise, no distinct patterns were found when the relationships between the learning styles scores of the tribal college students and their academic achievement were assessed. Since these techniques which collapse individual differences into the mean have not indicated any learning style patterns, an analysis was needed which redirected the focus to that of the uniqueness of the individual and which concentrated on the similarities which learners have.

Purpose and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore quantitative and qualitative techniques which would allow the preservation of individual differences in an effort to develop a typology of learning styles. Two research questions were addressed: Is cluster analysis an effective statistical method for deriving a typology of learning styles which maintains individual differences, and can limited interview data be categorized according to a cluster analysis in order to identify similar comments about the teaching-learning transaction? To address these questions an ex post facto analysis was conducted of CLSI scores collected on 565 Native Americans attending the tribally controlled community colleges of Montana. From this group, 57 students who had distinctive learning style profiles of very high scores in at least two areas measured by the CLSI had been interviewed about their learning styles and about teacher actions that affected their learning.

The CLSI conceptualizes learning style as composed of the elements of preferred conditions, content, and mode of learning and of the expected level of success. The preferred conditions of learning consist of the eight scales of Peer, Organization, Goal Setting, Competition, Instructor, Detail, Independence, and Authority; preferred content contains the scales of Numeric, Qualitative, Inanimate, and People; preferred mode has the scales of Listening, Reading, Iconic, and Direct Experience. Expectancy has four levels which range from expecting to do poorly to confidence in performing in a superior manner in the learning activity.

Cluster analysis is a statistical technique which groups data according to individual cases. It forms groups based on the similarities among cases. A typical cluster analysis procedure compares all individuals over the variables included in the study, determines the two most similar cases, joins them in a cluster, and goes on to seek the next most similar case. This process of joining the most similar cases proceeds until all units are joined into one cluster. In this study, student scores on the 20 learning style concepts in the CLSI were used to develop clusters. After establishing the cluster solution, the cluster membership of students was determined, the demographic characteristics of each cluster were calculated, and the interview data were joined with the cluster information by means of a data management program.

"Clustering methods are used to discover structure in data that is not readily apparent by visual inspection....The key to using cluster analysis is knowing when these groups are 'real' and not merely imposed on the data by the method" (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984, p. 16). Two steps were used to interpret the clusters in this study. First, commonalties of each cluster were identified by examining the mean scores for each learning style scale. Since CLSI scores are percentile score and since it "is important to realize that a rather large percentile difference near the median often represents a small difference in performance" (Cronbach, 1960, p. 76), only scores that were at least 20 percentiles above or below the 50th percentile were used to identify a distinct quality of the cluster. Second, interview data from a small number of the cluster members were analyzed to see if their comments about learning and the teaching-learning transaction supported the cluster structure and if these comments provided a richer explanation of the cluster.

A common method of identifying the number of clusters most appropriate for the data is to "graph the number of clusters implied by a hierarchical tree against the fusion or amalgamation coefficient, which is the numerical value at which various cases merge to form a cluster" (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984, p. 54). The point at which the graph has a sharp flattening indicates the number of clusters which provide a good fit for the data. Unfortunately, the agglomeration schedule of these coefficients showed a slow and constant growth of the coefficient which increased at a nearly steady rate. Consequently, this standard procedure was not helpful in identifying the cluster solution for this learning style data.

The lack of a sharp breaking point in the coefficients indicated that the 20 constructs in the CLSI were not mutually exclusive and thus contributing variance and confusion to the analysis. Therefore, an individual scanning of the traits of various possible cluster solutions was necessary. Since this study sought a manageable number of clusters related to learning styles, all cluster solutions between 20 and 6 were calculated. These factors were charted on a dendrogram which included the mean score for the cluster on each of the CLSI scales. Starting with the twentieth level, each linkage was analyzed for the contribution it made to a clear overall solution. If no major differences between the linking groups were lost, the merger was allowed, and the analysis continued at the next stage. Through this process it was determined that a 13-cluster solution was the most appropriate for explaining the grouping of the Native Americans in this study on learning styles. The clusters were relatively similar in size with 5 in the 30's, 2 in the 40's, and 4 in the 50's; the largest contained 71, and the smallest had 21.

Findings

Cluster 1 consisted of those who had a strong preference for working with numbers and logic and had a very low preference for working with people in such tasks as interviewing, counseling, and selling. They expected to achieve at a superior level or to fail altogether. The average age for this group was 25.2, which was younger that the overall group average of 28.27 years. Their overall grade point average (GPA) 2.80 was slightly below the total-group average of 2.83. Two-thirds (67%) of the group were women. Interviews with the tribal college faculty revealed that these learning style characteristics supported the social tasks of many women on the reservations. Since many women are single parents who are the heads of the household, they handle family financial matters which require an expertise in numbers. Also, since unemployment on the reservations runs between 50% and 80%, many women are forced to deal with social workers. Because the language of the items in the People scale reflect middle-class values and behaviors often degrading of welfare recipients, it was not surprising that many women showed a preference in the content area for numeric rather than people.

In interviews about the teaching-learning transaction, the six members interviewed from this group talked about the role of competition, culture, and questioning upon their learning in formal situations. When discussing competition, those interviewed referred to an internal competition which spurred them on to achieve the most they could from education. Three referred to helping others in the learning process. Feeling it is important for everybody to learn, one said, "We help each other a lot." Their good teachers related things to the culture, and as one young male student on the Crow reservation observed, "We teach him here and there." While all six are doing well in school and carrying at least a B average, one male worried about doing paper work; another does well "when I really apply myself, but I have not really pushed myself"; and a female Cheyenne felt that "if I'm in the class from the start, I'm okay. If I'm not there from the very beginning, there is no use going at all."

Cluster 2 contained learners who had a preference for competitive conditions and for the iconic mode. They expected their performance level in the formal setting to be either poor or average at best. The average age for this group was 25.8, and their overall GPA was 2.84. Nearly two-thirds (63%) of the group were women.

The average score for Competition was the second highest score on the CLSI for the total Native American group. When this was reported in private meetings and workshops with faculty and administrators at the tribal colleges and when it was presented at conference sessions to other educators of Native Americans, the validity of this finding was challenged. Therefore, in the interviews learners were questioned about the concept of competition and learning for Native Americans. Even though the strongest element in the Cluster 2 profile was a high score on Competition, the four who were interviewed from this cluster did not talk extensively about competition. While one person spoke of desiring competition and using it as a motivator to get higher grades, others addressed the issue of fairness and related it to the culture. Two of those interviewed discussed their experiences off the reservation. From these experiences they had learned that if they applied their talents, they could succeed at tasks in real life. With this enhanced self-concept, they realized that a major barrier to individual success is fairness. Therefore, in the learning environment, they expected the teacher to be fair to all. This involved recognizing mistakes and correcting them in a way that took into account their feelings and that allowed the preservation of their personal dignity. In essence it was "be truthful. Don't play games with me."

In order for the teachers to do this, they must be in touch with the culture and be able to use it to reinforce their teaching. Scores were high in Cluster 2 on Iconic which the CLSI describes as using a combination of audio-visual methods to foster learning. One spoke of thinking in pictures; another pointed out that she did not like to read textbooks; a third pointed out that he enjoyed watching films. The two males who were interviewed felt they learned best from "hands-on" experiences and using "common sense." In real life they were good at learning on the job or from direct experience. However, in school teachers often focused on writing things down or failed to relate things to the actual culture. Consequently, their expectancy level in the formal classroom was low; one of the males who was working on an associate degree in business administration and a vocational certification said, "My grades were always about a C....So I figured I'm an average student. Outside of school, I'm a good learner--especially if its hands-on. I can usually pick things up the first time, but school work is a different story."

Cluster 3 contained the largest number of learners. Those in this group scored high on the Competition scale and expected to perform at either an average or poor level. They had a very low preference for working with other students. The average age for this group was 27.7 and consisted of 85% women. The group's GPA was 2.61.

Although this group was characterized by a high score on the Competition scale like Cluster 2, the four females who were interviewed from this cluster did not talk about desiring comparisons with others when they were interviewed. Instead, they talked about a sequential learning process, a need for questioning, and the relationship of culture to learning. They said they learned best when a logical, step-by-step process was made evident by the teacher. They liked to break the learning task down and understand how things work; "I have to know what makes something tick or I'm lost." Through active questioning, they constantly assessed where they were in the learning process and used this feedback to tell them where they should go next. For one 25-year old mother majoring in computers, "it's helpful for the teacher to tell me where I'm at....It makes me feel really good for them to tell me I'm doing well." Thus, the competition which this group discussed was not an external process as implied in the CLSI. Instead, it was breaking down the process into manageable parts, practicing each part, and seeking feedback concerning the quality to which it was performed. For these four the ultimate purpose of this competition in learning was to set internal standards for personal learning.

The cultural factor of silence may also explain why this cluster had a low performance expectancy. One 46-year old woman from a tribe with a reputation for strongly adhering to its cultural traditions discussed the role of silence in her culture. In deference to authority and in order to learn from those with the most experience, one is expected to listen. Just as this is done with elders of the tribe, she said she sometimes does this with her teachers. Consequently, if the teacher asks her a direct question, she may simply not answer for this cultural reason. She described how this cultural practice got her punished while attending an Indian boarding school and how it got her placed in special education while attending school in Portland.

Finally, cultural factors influence the testing process. Several members of this group talked about "freezing" up on tests. They pointed out that language is a crucial element of culture and that Native Americans communicate in numerous ways. Using gestures and facial expressions and partial sentences to convey a thought cannot be measured on a test. Worse yet, in formal educational situations, tests are often "tricky." They indicated that they have learned that tests such as multiple-choice tests are designed more to trip up students than to measure knowledge. Therefore, although they have confidence in their ability to learn things in the real world, they have learned to have a low expectancy of performance in formal learning situations.

Cluster 4 was distinguished by a high preference for detail about specific requirements of the learning situation and a high expectancy to perform well. This group had a low preference for working with people in such situations as interviewing and for working in student teams. The average age for this group was 30.9 with a GPA of 2.89; 62% in this group were females.

The four interviewed from this cluster pointed out that they appreciated teachers who made it exactly clear what they expected of them. Good teachers not only spelled this out but then took steps to provide "extra help" when it was needed. One student remarked that in the learning situation, there is a "time for visiting and games but also a time for work." Learning could be fun when the teacher helped them by providing a syllabus, writing things down, breaking things down, or explaining things in detail.

Those interviewed said that they have always had to meet high expectations. These expectations stemmed from both childhood experiences in the home and early school successes. For example, one was in the gifted program in elementary school, and another was recently honored as the outstanding student in all of Montana's tribal colleges. Consequently, for them grades served as an incentive. Knowing exactly what was expected of them helped them prepare for and satisfy both their internal learning needs and these external criteria. Even though they were primed for success, several realized that if they did get behind in the learning process, they would have a great deal of difficulty catching up. The best way for them to avoid this was by knowing exactly what was expected, by constantly being prepared, and by securing extra help if they seemed to be falling off the pace.

Cluster 5 contained those who scored high on the Inanimate scale which indicated a preference for working with things in processes such as building, repairing, or designing. Although it might be assumed that a preference for learning about this type of content would be associated with learning through the mode of direct experience, these scales were not correlated for this group. Those in this cluster had a high expectancy to perform at an average level. The average age for this group was 28.2 with a GPA of 2.45; 54% in this group were males.

The four interviewed from this cluster learned best when they diagnose the problem and then start on a solution. Once into this process, their teachers became a valuable resource in helping to overcome problems and in sparking class discussions which allowed them to learn from fellow students. For the two who were in a construction program, this meant teachers who gave examples and did "not just tell you." This group liked to work at their own speed. They have come to expect rather low performance in formal classes because of their prior experiences, because they know tests are usually tricky, and because they believe that real life is not tested in the classroom.

Cluster 6 contained those who scored high on the Authority and Reading scales. Authority identifies a preference for learning under conditions with a well-informed instructor who maintains a high degree of order in the classroom. Reading measures a preference for learning through a mode which utilizes the written word. This group's rather high scores in Authority, Organization, Competition, and Detail forced low scores in Peer and Instructor. Their expectancy scores were distributed among the success groups with a very low expectancy of doing poorly. The average age for this group was 28.5 with a GPA of 3.02; this group was almost equally divided between males (49%) and females (51%).

The seven who were interviewed wanted teachers who have a "definite concern that they want to get the subject matter across to you." They demanded teachers who had an excellent command of the subject material, who were prepared when they came to class, who showed a genuine excitement in the subject being taught, and who took the time to present things in an interesting way. Realizing that society is highly competitive, they wanted teachers to set high standards based on the real world, to define the path for accomplishing these standards, and to help students achieve them. They liked teachers who followed the book but cautioned against teachers "who just throw the book at you." They resented teachers who just talked about themselves and who constantly compromised standards. Although they scored high on Reading, they tended to use reading as a device to locate authoritative sources rather than as a source of general, broad learning. Thus, a key role for their teachers was to help them clarify and prioritize the material in the text. This could be done by relating classroom material to practical applications and to student experiences. One student captured the essence of this style when she said, "I want to know what will be covered, why, and what is expected."

Cluster 7 is similar to Cluster 6. Its dominant characteristics were high scores on Authority and Reading. Low scores were in the areas of working in classes with much student interaction or conflict, learning through direct experiences in situations such as labs, and in expecting to perform at an average level. However, this cluster differed from Cluster 6 in the areas that tended to support the concept of authority. Unlike Cluster 6 which had a strong support area of competition, authority in Cluster 7 was supported by a goal orientation and a desire for working with people. The average age for this group was 32.8 with a GPA of 2.95; 64% of this group were males.

The three who were interviewed from this cluster did not focus their attention on competition as did those interviewed from Cluster 6. Instead, they discussed knowledgeable and enthusiastic teachers who were capable of actively involving them in the questioning process. Although the teacher represented an authoritative source of knowledge, the students participated in their own learning process through questioning. Their good teachers were open to this questioning process and used it as an opportunity to assure that each of them totally understood the material. Outside of school, they tended to "ask other people" as a major part of their learning strategy. One felt that the best teachers "taught you to know how to do things others expected you to know." Another liked teachers to "explain difficult things, give handouts, and write things on the board." Good grades motivated this 61-year old woman who had wanted to finish school for a long time and who was about to graduate. On the other hand, bad teachers for this group expected them to know the material at the teacher's level without allowing them adequate channels for inquiring about that which they were unsure.

Cluster 8 contained those who scored high on Reading. Unlike Clusters 6 and 7 which contained high scores on both Reading and Authority, those in Cluster 8 scored low on Authority. They also scored low on using direct experience as a mode of learning; throughout the interviews, learners indicated that scores in this area were low because the wording of the items stimulated them to think about laboratory situations in the sciences rather that working with items in a real-life situation. The average age for this group was 24.7 with a GPA of 2.83; 67% of this group were females.

The three students interviewed from this cluster reinforced the restricted application of the questions on the CLSI related to learning through direct experience. One indicated his scores were low on these items because the college did not have a lot of materials with which to work. Another spoke of reading for enjoyment but preferring discussion approaches in school. A third did label herself as "learning best with my hands" and not wanting to move on "till I see positive results." In general, those interviewed seemed accepting of a variety of teaching methods as long as the teacher related to them as people and taught useful things, "things not just in the book."

Cluster 9 is distinguished by a high preference for working with words or language, for learning by passive listening, and for expecting to perform at a superior level in the formal classroom. This group had a low preference for using direct experience as defined in the CLSI. The preference for qualitative content in a listening mode fits the stereotype of the Native American male who has a cultural role in storytelling and in listening to elders as a means of gathering societal wisdom. However, 62% of those in this cluster were females. The average age for this group was 27.1 with a GPA of 2.97.

Two of the four who were interviewed from this cluster spoke of bad experiences with math teachers who led them to question their mathematical abilities. Both felt they were probably competent in math, but as with so many other Native Americans who were put down in school, they found it easier to avoid the subject in question. All four criticized teachers who "just tell you what the book tells you" or who were "detached lecturers." Most indicated a high desire to be involved in the learning process and to receive meaningful feedback on their progress from the teacher.

Cluster 10 is noteworthy for having two very high scores and two very low scores in the content of learning and the mode of learning areas. In the content area, the preference for working with numbers and logic was very high and was supported by a tendency for working with words or language. These countered a very low preference for working with inanimate objects or for working with people in situations such as counseling. In the area of preferred mode of learning, scores were high on Listening and Reading; both of these infer a reliance on authority as a source of knowledge. Scores were low on modes using a combination of methods such as audio-visuals and on direct experience in situations such as science labs and field trips. This group had a high expectancy of performing at a superior level. The average age for this group was 31.2 with a GPA of 2.76; 95% of this group were females.

The three women interviewed from this small cluster all had varied work experience. All three spoke of the need for teachers to be organized, and two emphasized the importance of relevant examples in good classroom learning. They voiced some interesting contradictions regarding learning by listening, a characteristic marking this cluster. One described herself as "a listener" while a second said, "I'm not a listener, I need to write it down." The third spoke of rereading books and notes to study and of learning better through images than discussions.

Cluster 11 contained those who combine a high preference for learning in a disciplined classroom with a knowledgeable instructor with a strong desire to learn about numeric topics. This group had no desire to work independently. Its members believed that they would perform at a superior level. The average age for this group was 26.7 with a GPA of 3.03; 56% in this group were females.

Four interviewees in this cluster talked about experiences that led them to look favorably on math classes. They ranged from ridicule for being Native American in an elementary reading class to experience as a bookkeeper. The disciplined, orderly teacher they preferred was definitely not one who talked down to adult students, treated them like kids, or was prejudiced. As one put it, a bad teacher is one who does not believe a Native American student will ever learn enough to take the teacher's place.

Cluster 12 contained those with a high preference for having the course work logically and clearly organized and for having specific information about course assignments. Canfield argues that these two scales of Organization and Detail can be collapsed into a scale entitled Structure. A factor analysis of the CLSI found this to be the only scale in the conditions of learning area to have consistent construct validity (Conti & Fellenz, 1986, p. 73). This group also expected to perform at a superior level. Members of this group did not feel a strong need to know the instructor on a personal basis. This was an older group averaging 32.3 years and had the highest GPA (3.49) of all clusters. Just over half (55%) of the group were females.

The six members interviewed from this cluster viewed the teacher as a problem solver. Maintaining order and control over the class did not excuse the instructor from applying the content to the lives of the students. Neither did their lack of need to relate personally to an instructor relieve the teacher from the responsibility of knowing the students and of responding to them as individuals. Teachers should know the content well and not be a "good guy, rule bender." However, they should also involve students in active class discussions and problem solving sessions so that students can have their questions answered and learn from both the teacher and other students.

Cluster 13 contained those who had the lowest GPA (2.33). This group had a high preference for desiring a comparison with others and for learning through listening and reading. They had a high expectancy of failure. They had a low preference for learning through direct experience in situations such as a science lab. These preferences and academic achievements indicate a group of scared students. They have a strong deference to acquiring knowledge through established authorities in the form of the teacher lecturing and by assigned textbooks. Despite their reliance on authorities, they do not expect to do well in formal learning. The average age for this group was 28.7; 56% in this group were males.

The six interviewed from this cluster preferred teachers who were helpful and who stuck with them until the task was mastered. These students benefited from teachers who were directive in pointing out what they needed to do in order to learn the material and who were willing to help them design special aids or procedures for learning. Good teachers treated them as human beings and not just as receptacles for knowledge; therefore, even in these directive situations the teacher allowed them to maintain their personal dignity. These teachers were encouraging and did not put the blame on them for not learning. Instead, they were always accessible and eager to help them devise better ways of learning. In class, their good teachers encouraged discussions which allowed them to express their own views and which provided them feedback. Because many in this group had experienced failures in school, "had never been picked for anything before," had been labelled as poor students, and had suffered under poor teachers, they felt a caring teacher was crucial for their learning.

Discussion

Cluster analysis proved effective in preserving the individual as the unit of analysis in a manner not done by most other statistical procedures. As such, it should have numerous applications in education, especially in studies examining individual differences characterized by numerous variables. However, this particular use of the cluster analysis process did raise a number of questions and cautions. For example, categorizing individuals by necessity obscures some of their individuality. Final descriptions of clusters are given in terms of group means rather than individual traits. Moreover, characteristics common to the total group may loose their visibility because of their commonality among all clusters. Such was the case with the desire for competent authorities as teachers in this study. In addition, the question of when to recognize groups as significant and stop the clustering process calls for practiced judgement. When the process is stopped early, the groups are more distinctive; when the clustering continues longer, the number of clusters becomes more manageable and more descriptive of the total population. Regardless of when the clustering is stopped, cluster analysis involves considerable computer memory capability. Finally, any technique using a statistical analysis is limited to the validity of the measurement devices used.

The clusters produced by this analysis also proved to be an effective way of categorizing previously collected interview data. When the interview data were analyzed by these clusters, distinct similarities emerged in the way students discussed the teaching-learning transaction. Some even used the same terminology. For example, the only two students in all of the interviews to refer to "freezing" on tests were in the same cluster. However, the surprise in analyzing the interviews was that the students often did not discuss learning in terms of the CLSI concepts that had statistically grouped them. Thus, while the cluster analysis successfully isolated unique groups and while the content of the interviews augmented the interpretation of the clusters, the cluster analysis did not predict the exact concepts that the students used in describing their learning.

This study sought to use individual differences to identify and describe distinct learning style groups. While this was achieved, the analysis of the interviews uncovered a danger in this approach. In relying only on the unique characteristics, the broad and pervasive characteristics which applied to most learners were lost. For example, most students talked about the critical role of questioning in the formal classroom. Since this was a general characteristic, it could not be used as a distinct cluster characteristic. Likewise, although many students talked about the need for structure in the learning environment, the cluster analysis diluted this preference by distributing it across many groups. Thus, while cluster analysis is a powerful means for preserving individual differences and an effective way for grouping interview data, it should be used in combination with other techniques which identify and maintain general group tendencies when attempting to construct a typology of a concept such as learning styles.

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AN EVALUATION OF EXTENSION NONCREDIT SHORT COURSES USING A FOLLOW-UP ASSIGNMENT TECHNIQUE

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ABSTRACT: Participants in noncredit short courses who completed their follow-up assignment plans back in the workplace reported higher levels of satisfaction with and usefulness from the short courses than those who did not complete their follow-up assignment plans. The instructor's use of a follow-up assignment technique appears to be related to perceived course satisfaction and course usefulness only if participants actually complete part or all of their follow-up assignment plans.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Providers of continuing professional education (CPE) short courses are becoming more aware of the importance of providing evidence, both to participants and to their sponsors, of an adequate return on investment in CPE programs. Most continuing education short courses have been evaluated with an end-of-course evaluation instrument on participant's satisfaction with the course and the instructor. However, much of the interest in and research on the effectiveness of CPE focuses on the transfer of the training received to improve professional performance in the workplace. One of the techniques recommended in the literature to improve the transfer and application of training is the use of a follow-up assignment (Baumgartel and Jeanpierre, 1972; Alford, 1974; Elkins, 1977; Houle, 1980; Moore, 1980; Morris, 1980; Slegel, 1981; Sloan, 1981; Barton, 1982). The central questions are: (1) "Does the use of a follow-up assignment technique in noncredit CPE short courses improve perceived course satisfaction and usefulness in the workplace?" (2) "Is there a relationship between level of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment plan and perceived course satisfaction and usefulness?" and (3) "Is there a relationship between selected personal factors and level of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment for the experimental group?"

METHOD

During 1987, 396 professionals in industry nationwide enrolled in 23 of 120 open enrollment engineering short courses offered by North Carolina State University. The courses were in five content categories: management, plant operations, computer and electrical, power and energy, and manufacturing.

The research design for this study is classified as experimental and is specifically called the "Posttest Only, Control Group Design," as described by Campbell and Stanley (1963, p. 195). The design is as follows:

R X O_1

R O_2 . The "X" represents the treatment applied to one group, testing its effect for the experimental group. The "R" is the randomized selection process; and "O_1 and O_2" represent the observations of the two groups.

Students in each of the 23 courses were divided into two groups, N=200 for the experimental group and N=196 for the control group. To select two groups within each course, a random selection process was followed by entering an alphabetized attendee list for each course at a random point and then selecting every other name through the list, which became the experimental group. Those names remaining became the control group. The procedure was reversed for every other course, with remaining names becoming the experimental group. This alternate process further assured randomness. This exercise was done near the end of the course, at which time the control group was dismissed. The experimental group then was invited to participate in the follow-up assignment and evaluation exercise. Members of the experimental group were free to accept or reject the invitation. A large proportion accepted. The final sample, based on numbers of survey instruments returned, was 260 participants with 131 in the experimental group and 129 in the control group or 66 percent of 396.

Part I of the questionnaire requested personal data in five areas: age, job classification, prior number of continuing education courses completed, level of formal education, and company's attitude toward training.

Part II of the questionnaire pertained to the dependent variables of perceived course satisfaction and course usefulness in the workplace. Both variables were measured by using a five-point Likert type scale. The response alternatives for "course satisfaction" were: (5) yes, definitely, (4) yes, moderately so, (3) indifferent, (2) of small satisfaction, (1) no satisfaction whatsoever. For "course usefulness to your work or job," the response alternatives were: (5) extremely useful and applicable, (4) moderately useful and applicable, (3) indifferent, (2) of little benefit, (1) no benefit whatsoever.

Part III of the questionnaire contained the two primary independent variables, the follow-up assignment and the reported level of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment. At the end of the course, participants in the experimental group were asked to specify up to four plans they wanted to accomplish back on the job as a result of information learned in the short courses. After an interval of 3 to 4 months, Part III of the questionnaire was mailed to the experimental group participants to determine the extent to which the plans had been accomplished.

Participants listed their accomplishments for each of their plans and indicated their level of accomplishment by checking one of the following: (1) did not accomplish any of my plan, (2) partially accomplished my plan, and (3) fully accomplished my plan.

DESCRIPTION OF DATA

The data in Table 1 describe the dependent variables used in the study. The experimental and control groups had almost identical mean scores on both course satisfaction and course usefulness.

Table 1. Comparison of experimental and control groups, by perceived satisfaction and course usefulness

Variable	Treatment	N	Mean score	t-value
Perceived satisfaction	Experimental	131	4.51	0.188
	Control	129	4.52	0.187
Perceived course usefulness	Experimental	131	4.29	-0.687
	Control	129	4.24	-0.687

The mean scores on course satisfaction were 4.51 and 4.52 and on perceived course usefulness they were 4.29 and 4.24, respectively, for the experimental and control groups. Both measures used a 5-point Likert type scale with 5 being the most satisfied and also the most useful. No significant differences were found between the experimental and the control groups on these measures. Both groups were definitely satisfied and found the short courses to be quite useful in the workplace. The use of a follow-up assignment technique did not result in greater perceived satisfaction with the course or usefulness of the course in the workplace.

The data in Table 2 indicate significant relationships between levels of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment plan and course satisfaction and course usefulness in the workplace.

Table 2. Analysis of variance of the effect of levels of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment plan on course satisfaction and usefulness, for the experimental group

Source Variable	DF	SS	MS	F Value
		Course Satisfaction		
Model	2	2.294	1.147	3.45*
Error	126	41.861	0.332	
Cor. Total	128	44.155		
		Course Usefulness		
Model	2	5.184	2.592	7.29*
Error	126	44.894	0.355	
Cor. Total	128	49.969		

*Significant at .05 level.

To determine the specific relationship, Duncan's Means Separation Procedure was used (see Table 3).

Table 3. Duncan's means separation procedure for effect of levels of accomplishment on satisfaction and course usefulness, for the experimental group

Course Satisfaction				Course Usefulness			
Level of Accomplishment[a]		Means	Subset[b]	Level of Accomplishment[a]		Means	Subset[b]
3	22	4.77	a *	3	22	4.73	a *
2	95	4.50	a b	2	95	4.26	* b
1	12	4.25	a b	1	12	4.00	* b
N = 129, $\bar{X}$ = 4.51				N = 129, $\bar{X}$ = 4.33			

*Significant at .05 level.

[a] 3=fully accomplished plan
2=partially accomplished plan
1=did not accomplish plan

[b] Subsets a and b = differences not significant at .05 level

Over 90 percent of the respondents fully or partially accomplished their follow-up plans. Further, they were more satisfied with their short courses and perceived the courses to be more useful in the workplace than reported by those who did not accomplish the plan. Significant mean differences were found between levels 3 and 1 for course satisfaction and levels 3 and 2 and 3 and 1 for course usefulness. No significant relationships were found between the dependent variables of perceived course satisfaction and course usefulness and the independent variables of age, job classification, prior number of continuing education courses completed, level of formal education, or company's attitude toward training.

DISCUSSION

The foregoing results failed to support the premise that the use of a follow-up assignment technique will substantially increase perceived satisfaction with engineering short courses and their perceived usefulness in the workplace. Both the experimental and control groups were definitely satisfied with the short courses and also found the courses to be quite useful in the workplace. It may be that more variation is needed in the dependent variables to test adequately for the effect of the follow-up assignment technique.

While the study findings failed to support the major premise, the levels of accomplishment of the follow-up assignment plans among the experimental group were significantly related to perceived course satisfaction and usefulness in the workplace. Participants who fully accomplished their follow-up assignment plans were much more satisfied with their courses and considered them more useful than was expressed by those who did not or only partially accomplished their plans. These findings strongly suggest that it is not the use of a follow-up assignment technique that is important. Rather, it is whether or not the learner actually accomplishes the follow-up assignment plan that is important.

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The Montana Study:
A Comparative Look at Seven Study Groups

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Abstract

This study was a historical examination of seven community study groups in Montana which used participatory research for community action and development. The study examined the changes in the communities and how the variables of leadership, citizen participation, and community support impacted those community changes.

Introduction

There has been a recurrence of interest in using participatory education as a means of promoting community action, development, and empowerment in rural United States. The Montana Study project is a historical example of participatory research done in rural areas. Montana State University system between 1943-1947 created community study groups to research ways in which small rural communities could assess and develop their own social, economic, and cultural resources(Brownell, 1945). The community study groups were modeled after the Danish Folk Schools.

Issues Investigated

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in changes among Montana communities which were involved in the Montana Study Project. Different variables such as leadership, level of community members' participation, and acceptance within the community of proposed changes, were used to compare the effects of the study groups on the community change.

Methodology

The method of research was historical using the primary documents located in the archives of the Montana Historical Society, Helena, MT; Montana State University, Bozeman, MT; University of Montana, Missoula, MT; and Rockefeller Foundation, Tarrytown, NY. These documents included the official records, day books, correspondence, and evaluations of the Montana Study staff and reports from seven of the ten study groups which participated in the study.

Fourteen surviving participants were interviewed about their perceptions of their community study groups. The oral histories were used to gain insight into the actual function of the study groups. As Guba and Lincoln (1983, p. 162) wrote, "Personal reminiscences are what add substance and feeling to any study-they help us understand how people lived, what they thought and felt about their work, family, and community." The following communities were used in the comparison: Libby, Conrad, Lewistown, Stevensville, Hamilton, Darby, and Lonepine. Three communities were not used because there were not records from the groups.

Historical Findings

Dr. Ernest Melby, chancellor of the Montana University System from 1942-1944, had been increasingly disturbed by the lack of support the general population of Montana gave to the higher education system. Melby urged the units of the university system to create adult education programs and to practice university outreach to communities throughout Montana. He reasoned that the adult education and higher education connection would build the necessary grassroots support for full funding of the higher education system in Montana.

In the summer of 1943, a dialogue started between Melby and Stevens, Director of the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation, about the possibility of a grant for the University System. As a result, Melby submitted a proposal to the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation which stated:

> The University of Montana wished to undertake a research program to determine the contribution of the humanities to a program of higher education designed to improve the quality of living in the State of Montana. Through such a study, the University hopes to develop its educational program so as to meet the needs of the state more fully. If education in the humanistic field is to have validity and effectiveness, it must be closely attuned to the cultural background and present environment of the people whose education we seek to further. Therefore, if the University of Montana wishes to undertake an educational program designed to improve the quality of living in the state, it should have available an adequate basis of fact regarding the people of the state and their need. (Melby, 1944, p. 1)

In 1944, the Rockefeller Foundation awarded a three year grant of $25,500 to the university system for the research project known as the Montana Study. The grant supported three staff members: Baker Brownell, a philosopher from Northwestern University; Paul Meadows, a rural sociologist from Northwestern; and Joseph Kinsey Howard, a Montana author and journalist.

The Montana Study Groups

The Montana Study started on July 1, 1944. Brownell, the chief administrator, developed a plan where folks in small rural communities would research ways to stabilize their communities. Community members were to be organized into study groups "in which they would study and discuss their own community, its cultural and historical traditions; and gather data to find ways to improve their own community" (Brownell, 1946, p.34). The Montana Study staff created a ten-week study guide called *Life in Montana as Seen from Lonepine, A Small Community*. The study guide was piloted in the rural community of Lonepine. The study group explored a different topic area each week with volunteers researching a particular question and bringing back information to discuss and analyze at the next group meeting. The rules for the study groups were as follows:

> We are here to *discuss* problems of our community, our state, and our nation with the view toward finding out how living in communities may become more interesting and secure. We will use three simple methods for accomplishing these goals: discussion, cooperative research, and objective thinking (Brownell, 1944, pp. 6-7).

The problem for the first week was to analyze "the composition of the community as to nationality, history, occupation, religion, politics, education, and recreation" (Brownell, 1944, pp. 6-12). The second week of study focused on the people in the community. "One of the most important elements affecting the stability of our community is human connections. The feeling of belonging to a group of people who know each other, understand each other, and are interested each other, seems to be necessary part of human happiness and security" (Brownell, 1944, p. 21). The research questions focused on how churches, school, lodges, clubs, and recreation played a part in human companionship and how human connections could be expanded. The third week study focused on the different ways in which the people in the community made a living and how people utilized their resources. The fourth study was on the relationship between the community and the state. The fifth week looked at the cultural differences in the community. The sixth through the eighth weeks examined the relationship of the community to the nation, and explored the future possibilities for the state and the community. The ninth week explored how action could be used to stabilize the community with the research questions calling for "finding ways to pool resources in the community to help facilitate change, to find ways of gaining control over means of making a living in the community, to build a stronger education system, and to develop the cultural and artistic aspects in the community" (Brownell, 1944, pp. 97-105).

The tenth-week called for the evaluation of the study group process. The participants were to evaluate the ability of the group to carry on discussion without "undue emotion and prejudice, and for the sake of solving a problem, not in winning a debate"(Brownell, 1944, p. 107), how well the group was able to gather information and use it in constructive action, and how enjoyable the study group method had been for the them (Brownell, 1944, pp. 107-111).

Between 1945 and 1947, ten communities participated in the Montana Study including Lonepine, Hamilton, Stevensville, Darby, Lewistown, Conrad, Woodman, Dixon, Libby, and a Native American group from the Salish-Kootenia tribes. All the communities had less than 5000 people. Eight of the ten were in Western Montana and six were in the Bitter Root Valley. Two of the groups were made up of Native Americans from the Flathead Reservation. Only Conrad and Lewistown were in Eastern Montana. The predominate source of income for the Western Montana communities was lumbering and agriculture, while in Eastern Montana, the economy was dependent on agriculture.

The participants in the various study groups were housewives, business people, government officials, community leaders, retired folks, ranchers, farmers, clergy, and educators. Except in the case of Libby, blue collar workers tended not to participate.

Comparisons of Study Groups

Seven community study groups of Lonepine, Darby, Hamilton, Stevensville, Lewistown, Libby, and Conrad were used in the comparison. The seven study groups had used the same study guide and had complete records of the research which had been done. The communities divided into two groups: those study groups which were able to facilitate change and those which did not foster community development.

In the communities of Lonepine, Stevensville, Hamilton, and Darby, there was no evidence in the records or interviews to suggest the ten-week study had created community change. Ideas for change in Hamilton were ignored, while in Stevensville the suggestions were met with open hostility (Poston, 1950, p. 54). In the Hamilton study group, participants failed to become actively involved in the research and discussion (Hamilton Study Group Report, 1945). People from these groups remembered very little about being involved in the study group process or the outcomes of the study (Hamilton Interviews, 1988).

The one factor which seemed to influence these study groups the most was that Brownell assumed the leadership role. The participants in these groups found the meetings "stimulating", Brownell "a dynamic speaker", the study interesting and "a privilege to have such a prominent man come to their community." (Hamilton Interviews, 1989) It was apparent that Brownell had come to the study groups with his own agenda. Brownell philosophically believed that the only way democracy in the United States could be saved was by preserving the small rural communities (Brownell, 1950). One women remarked, "Brownell approached the study group as a evangelist with missionary zeal. He was very inspiring"(Brandborg Interview, 1989). As Homstad (1987, p. 73) had said, "The intellectual missionary (Brownell) had come from the East to rescue the country bumpkins in the West."

In contrast, the leadership in the three communities of Conrad, Libby, and Lewistown came from within the community and from within the study groups. All the communities were a fair distance from the Montana Study Headquarters in Missoula; therefore, Brownell was unable to take over the leader-for "finding ways to pool resources in the community to help facilitate change, to find ways of gaining control over means of making a living in the community, to build a stronger education system, and to develop the cultural and artistic aspects in the community" (Brownell, 1944, pp. 97-105).

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Conclusions

The Montana Study was an experiment into the ideals that people working together could assess and develop their own economic, social, and cultural resources. Seven of the study groups which participated in the Montana Study were analyzed for differences in how study groups facilitated community change and the variables among the study groups which might have had an effect on community change.

One of the findings of this study was that the source of leadership had an effect on the level of community member participation and on the resulting changes within the community. When leadership came from within the group and community as in the cases of Conrad, Libby, and Lewistown, people became actively involved in the research, discussion, and problem-solving. The study guide became a vehicle for teaching the community problem-solving process while allowing the group to work through their own community problems and developing their own leadership. These study groups had higher success rate for creating change in the community.

On the other hand, where Brownell, the outside expert, assumed the role of leader in the study groups, the research process was altered by his preconceived goal for saving small towns. The study groups members were spectators; and therefore they did not have the opportunity to go through the community problem-solving process. Members of these groups were not committed to action and the communities on the whole viewed any community change with suspicion. These finding are consistent with the literature on leadership in participatory research as reported by Hall(1981) and Griffith and Cristarella (1979).

Another major finding suggested that there were individual educational benefits for whose who were actively involved in the research and discussion in the study groups. Members from these groups reported a new awareness of their communities, a better understanding of the differences within the communities, and a stronger commitment to making the community a better place to live. As individuals, they reported a new awareness of how their individual abilities and skills could be used in community problem-solving, a new feeling of self-confidence, and a willingness to take risks. They also felt a closer tie to others and a better understanding of individual differences in the group. Working through the community problem-solving process created a bond where the individuals became the collective, working, committed group dedicated to making their community a better place to live. These findings are consistent with findings reported by Coggins(1980) and Fellenz(1987).

In the final analysis, the evidence indicates that when the study group members were involved in the leadership in the Montana Study Groups, the participants felt that they had gained a fuller, richer way of looking at the past, present, and future and a commitment to work toward a better community. On the individual level, the study groups became an unfolding and growth process for participants who become aware of their own potential and new abilities for working together.

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STRUCTURAL DIMENSIONS OF BRITISH ATTITUDES TOWARD ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract: The Adult Attitudes Toward Continuing Education Scale was administered to a random sample of the British public. Factor analysis yielded three dimensions of attitude toward adult education. Four attitudinal types were identified through cluster analysis of the factor scores. Implications of the findings are discussed.

Problem: The objectives of the research were to explore the underlying structure of British attitudes toward adult education and to develop a means of understanding differences among groups of individuals through the construction of a typology based on the identified dimensions.

A typical definition of attitude is "an internal state which affects an individual's choice of action toward some object, person, or event" (Gagne & Briggs, 1974, p. 2). It follows, of course, that attitudes toward adult education significantly influence the likelihood of participation in further education and training by adults. Although the construct of attitude is central to most theories of participation behavior, only a handful of attempts have been made to measure attitudes, none of them successful. Attitudes are important not only because of the relationship to educational participation (Darkenwald & Hayes, 1988), but also because they determine in part public support for the provision of adult education in the community and workplace.

The research reported here builds on recent studies using AACES to predict and compare participation behavior in Britain and the U.S.A. (Darkenwald & Hayes, 1988; Darkenwald, 1988; Hayes & Darkenwald, 1988). The last-noted study also presents factor and cluster analytic findings similar to those reported here, but for a sample of the American adult public. Although important for theory building, descriptive and predictive studies have limited practical utility. In constrast, the construction of a typology of individuals grounded in similarities and differences in attitudinal structure yields extremely useful information for recruitment and instructional strategies.

Methodology: The Adult Attitudes Toward Continuing Education Scale (AACES) was developed and pilot tested over a six-month period by a team of Rutgers doctoral students supervised by the present author and Elisabeth Hayes. A detailed description of the procedures employed to construct AACES can be found in Darkenwald & Hayes (1988). AACES consists of 22 items on a Likert-type scale. Seven items measure attitude toward situation (e.g., "Being in a classroom makes me feel uncomfortable"); the other 15 items measure attitude toward object (e.g., "Adult education helps people make better use of their lives"). The version of AACES administered in Britain was identical to the original except for necessary Anglicization of the directions and a few words such as "program" ("programme"). The reliability of AACES was high and identical for both the original U.S. and British samples (alpha= .90). Evidence of predictive and concurrent validity is presented in Darkenwald (1988) and Darkenwald & Hayes (1988).

The directions to respondents were equivalently worded in Britain and the U.S.A. Adult education was defined very broadly to include any subject, purpose, or format. The author was assisted by British colleagues who rewrote the directions and reviewed the 22 scale items for applicability to British circumstances; all were judged applicable.

A four-item "Yes/No" Behavioral Index was developed to assess attitude-behavior (A-B) correspondence. The first three items inquired about current participation in adult education, frequency of participation, and past participation; the last asked respondents "Have you ever suggested to another adult that he or she engage in some kind of adult education or training"? The alpha reliability coefficient for the index was an acceptable .68.

Sampling & Data Collection. A British market research firm was engaged to draw a random sample of the British adult public from the electoral lists of England. Wales and Scotland were excluded because of their cultural distinctiveness. Six hundred questionnaires were mailed with cover letters and stamped, pre-addressed return envelopes. Follow-ups of nonrespondents were conducted at two three-week intervals. Two hundred fifty-three usable questionnaires were returned. Adjusted for postal service "undeliverables" (n-115) and illness, death, disability, etc. (as indicated by letters or notes with returned blank questionnaires --a total of 34), but not refusals (n=19), the return rate was a respectable 56 percent. Bias estimation procedures revealed that the demographics of the sample were very close to those for the general English public.

Only a brief overview of respondent demographic characteristics can be given here. The basic statistics follow. Sex: 55.4% female; Age: mean= 44; Employment status: 42.3% employed full-time; Educational attainment: 40.2%, no educational credential; 33.1%,CSE to GCE A-level secondary school credential; 7.2%, two or three year postsecondary school credential (e.g., ONC, HND); 6.4%, university first degree; 8%, other --including postgraduate study or degree; Annual gross household income: 19% less that 5,000 pounds; 27.1%, five thousand to ten thousand pounds; 31.2%, eleven to twenty thousand pounds; 9.3%, twenty-one to twenty-nine thousand pounds; 6.1%, thirty thousand pounds or more; and 6.7% (mostly women), "don't know." In May, 1987, the time of the survey, one pound sterling equalled $1.60.

Data Analysis: Factor analysis was employed to identify the underlying dimensions of attitudes toward adult education measured by AACES. Solutions consisting of two to six factors were derived, using both orthogonal (Varimax) and oblique rotations. Although the Kaiser criterion was considered, the final factor structure was selected primarily for its conceptual meaningfulness. Disjoint cluster analysis was used to generate the attitude typology. Factor scores served as the clustering variable in a series of analyses that produced solutions with two to seven clusters. A solution was sought that would generate the largest number of meaningful groups of individuals. The pattern of mean factor scores for each solution was evaluated as the measure of the interpretability of the solution. Only those items with a loading of .40 or greater were used to define the factors. In the final three-factor Varimax solution, all items loaded ; four of the 22 loaded on two factors and were assigned to the factor on which they loaded highest. The parsimonious three-factor solution accounted for 45.1 percent of the scale variance.

Findings: Factor Analysis

Given space limitations, a full table of the factor-analytic results is not given here. Instead, an interpretive description of the factors is presented that includes the four highest-loading items for each factor. Note that negatively worded items were recoded to positive valence prior to the factor analysis.

Factor 1: Benefits of Adult Education .

The three highest-loading or "marker" items on Factor 1 were: (1) "Continuing my education would make me feel better about myself (.60)"; (2) "I enjoy education activities that allow me to learn with others (.58)"; and (3) "I enjoy participating in educational activities (.58)." Although the marker variables refer to benefits to self with respect to attitudes toward situation, all but one of the remaining ten items refer to general benefits, e.g., "Adult education helps people make better use of their lives (.56)." Factor 1 somewhat resembles one of the three factors that were identified in the U.S.A. analysis, labelled "Importance of Adult Education," but cannot be said to be equivalent.

Factor 2: Enjoyment of Educational Activities.

In some ways Factor 2 resembles the first factor, specifically items 2 and 3 noted above. In fact, item 3 loaded .51 on Factor 2. Nonetheless, the most cogent overall interpretation , given the content of the four attitude to situation items that define the second factor, is that it reflects quite strongly individuals' liking of engagement in learning activities. The items that define Factor 2 are: (1) "Being in a classroom makes me feel uncomfortable (.77)"; (2) "Going back to school as an adult is embarrassing (.67)"; (3) "I'm fed up with teachers and classes (.64)"; and (4) "I dislike studying (.63)." This factor strongly resembles the U.S. factor labelled "Enjoyment of Learning Activities."

Factor 3: Intrinsic Value of Adult Education .

The third factor consisted of five items, all of which represented attitude toward object. The four marker items were: (1) "Adult education is mostly for people with little else to do (.68)"; (2) "Education for adults is less important than education for children (.65)"; (3) "The need for education continues throughout one's lifetime (.56)"; and (4) "Adult education is not necessary for most people (.56)." All the Factor 3 items represent opinions about the inherent worth of adult education. Unlike the items on Factor 1, which largely reflect evaluations of the extent that adult education and its outcomes are important to other ends, items loading on this factor indicate an assessment of adult education's value in and of itself. The U.S. factor with the same label resembled Factor 3, but the British factor is "cleaner" or more obviously a measure of its label.

Cluster Analysis Results.

A four cluster solution was the most satisfactory in terms of the key criterion of interpretability. Solutions with fewer clusters made less useful contributions to understanding differences within the population. Those with more clusters were of little external validity since all contained groups with less than 10 cases. The findings of the cluster analysis are summarized below.

Type 1. This group (n=73) exhibited low scores on Factor 1, Benefits, and Factor 2, Enjoyment, but high scores on Factor 3, Intrinsic Value. They had low means on AACES in relation to the entire sample, but higher participation behavior (Behavioral Index) scores. No gender differences were observed, but the individuals in this group were older that the norm, had a relatively high level of educational attainment and quite high household incomes. They appear to be middle class people who hold convential values about the intrinsic worth of adult education, participate fairly regularly, but see participation as not particularly enjoyable or likely to result in any great benefits.

Type 2. This group (n=31) scored very high on Benefits, but low on both Enjoyment and Intrinsic Value. Their participation and attitude scores were low and high, respectively. However, this group differed in being considerably older (mean=49), less well educated, and less affluent than the others in the sample. Also, they were the only group to show gender differences: the majority were women. They appear to comprise older persons, with positive attitudes toward adult education, but rather low participation rates. The profile of demographics is very logical in that older adults tend to be characterized by lower educational attainment, lower incomes, a predominance of women, and relatively low participation rates in educational activities. Their attitudinal orientation is largely pragmatic.

Type 3. This group, by far the largest (n=120) was characterized by average Benefit and Intrinsic Value scores, but high scores on Factor 2, Enjoyment. Their mean attitude scores were by far the most positive of any of the other cluster groups, but their participation score was the lowest --comparable, roughly, to Type 2's. Type 3 individual's were by far the youngest (mean=41), the most affluent, and the best educated than the members of the other three groups. Perhaps they are the English equivalent of what we Americans call "Yuppies."

Type 4. Members of the group scored highest of all on the participation index, but lowest on attitude to adult education. With respect to factor scores, these 29 individuals exhibited very low scores on Intrinsic Value, low scores on Benefits, and average scores on Enjoyment. Members of this group had the lowest educational attainment and income levels and were older than the average (mean=47.4).A large proportion were unemployed or employed part-time, which may explain the apparent contradiction of a low attitude score coupled with a high rate of educational participation. It seems likely that a majority of this group were, or had been, participants in one of the plethora of job training schemes sponsored by the British government.

Conclusions: The conceptualization of attitudes presented in this and the American companion study (Hayes & Darkenwald, 1988) serves to correct theories of attitude toward adult education that view attitude as a unidimensional construct. The factor structures also provide grounds for identifying the shortcomings of narrow conceptions of attitudes. For example, in Darkenwald & Merrian (1982, p. 144) attitudes are equated with the "perceived value/utility of adult education." This, and the U.S.A. study, indicate that other dimensions of attitudes also exhibit relationships to participation behavior and should be incorporated into theoretical explanations.

A priority for future research is replication of the present study, both cross-culturally and in the U.S. with a more representative sample than that employed in the American companion study. Attitudes, as Rokeach (1968) points out, partly reflect an underlying personal value system linked to the values and norms of one's society. Not only would attititudes vary, at least to an extent, according to one's value system, but the relationship of attitudes to behavior might be affected by that value system. The attitudinal dimensions themselves may vary across cultures (Hayes & Darkenwald, 1988). Therefore, determining their stability through replication of this study is of major import for theory building and the refinement of implications for practice.

From a practice perspective, the findings of this study have numerous implications that could be elaborated upon at some length. Close scrutiny of the cluster analysis findings indicates a fundamental and familiar reality: the majority of participants and potential participants are Type 3's --well-educated, younger, affluent adults with an Enjoyment value orientation and a concern as well for the Benefits and Intrinsic Value of adult education. Type 2's, in contrast, who are primarily much older, less educated, and less affluent, represent a distinct minority of current and potential participants. The other types are also recognizable by practioners. What is important is that hunches, and implications of past research findings, are validated and elaborated here through an empirically based typology. Most of the implications of the typology for instructional practice are self-evident. The factor-analytic findings suggest a strategy for recruitment that is not so obvious. Although the general adult public, at least in England , the U.S., and other industrialized countries, is very diverse, it appears likely that the attitudinal dimensions of Benefits, Enjoyment, and Intrinsic Value are generic. Thus for maximum appeal to every segment of the public, promotional messages, through the media , brochures, and personal contact, should convey to the public that participation in adult education is enjoyable, results in concrete benefits, and is necessary and important to adults in today's world.

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Adult Education and Autobiography: The Quest for Identity

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Abstract

The prevailing 'adult characteristics' approach to theory construction in adult education is criticized for providing only a shallow account of the concept of identity. Autobiography is proposed as a medium whereby this concept can be explored in greater depth.

Introduction

Adult education, identity, and autobiography are three topics seldom discussed together. My objective is to show that despite their lack of overt alliance they are in fact closely related: Adult education theory makes many assumptions about the nature of individual identity, without examining the concept of identity with any critical scrutiny. Regarding this concept, autobiography has much to tell us.

Adult Education

An acknowledged deficiency in adult education is in the area of conceptual foundations (Rubenson, 1982). Although assumptions about adult identity have figured centrally in adult education research and prescriptions for practice, these assumptions have not been explored in much conceptual depth.

The standard way in which adult education accounts for itself has been called by Griffin (1983) the 'adult characteristics' approach to theory construction. On this view, adult education is distinctive because adults are; adults live and learn in a particular way which requires particular kinds of educational theories and strategies. One influential example of this is the notion of andragogy popularized by Knowles.

The assumptions underlying the adult characteristics approach suggest that in adult education typically "one assumes that a person is a self-directing organism with initiative, intentions, choices, freedom, energy and responsibility" (Chene, 1983: 38, citing Tough, 1971). On the view of Griffin and others (Chene, 1983; Keddie, 1980; Lawson, 1985; Rubenson, 1982), this approach may be the norm, but it is less than adequate. One of the criticisms is that adult education suffers from a naive and narrow "ideology of individualism" (Keddie, 1980; Griffin, 1983). This doesn't apply just to andragogy; the whole student-centered, individual needs-meeting philosophy of adult education is implicated.

What's wrong with individualism? One critical observation is that it privileges the individual at the expense of social and other dimensions of education; it reduces "the social functions of adult education...to the sum of the purposes of individual learners" (Griffin, 1983: 60). Another criticism is that it fosters and attempts to universalize a cultural (and middle-class) bias regarding the concept of individual identity. As Lawson (1985) puts it,

> 'individuality' and 'self-identity' are not simply empirical facts. They represent implicit claims for a certain kind of status and they are ethical concepts....The idea of a freely choosing 'autonomous self' is at the centre of much of our thinking...but there are other ways of seeing things..." (220).

However, to the possible existence of those other ways, the philosophy, theory, organization and methods within adult education remain mostly blind.

Identity

In light of the above, it would seem that adult education is rather heavily invested in certain assumptions about the identity of adults (self-directed, self-reliant and so on) but leaves unexamined the other and deeper ways in which identity is significant. Although not a concept that gets much attention in the adult education literature, it is, some would claim, a key factor in shaping 'what is going on' not only in adult education but in the wider scope of human affairs.

One who holds such a view is the philosopher Charles Taylor (1985a, 1985b). For Taylor, identity permeates all dimensions of human thought and action. It is embedded, for example, in the structures, practices, and institutions of society, in our sexual and family relations, in our moral values, our understanding of 'the good life'. The modern notion of singular and autonomous individual identity, says Taylor, "is an historic creation" (1985b: 257), the end product of a long and complex set of developments. Pivotally in the seventeenth century, a time of many changes in science (e.g. Descartes), philosophy (e.g. Locke), religion (e.g. Protestantism), "a new conception of what it is to be a human subject...entrenches itself in our thought and sensibility" (1985a: 255). Identity, once essentially a matter of affiliation (my lineage, community) comes more and more to be a matter of difference (the 'real me' underlying my social roles).

Many of the deepest convictions of modern times -- rights, equality, freedom, rationality, personal creativity -- are reflections of these changes, and they represent real triumphs, real advances in the (Western) quality of life. However, in Taylor's view, there have been costs, sometimes terrible ones, in this transformation. Self-interested consumerism at the expense of societal integrity, exploitation of the natural environment, and the lack of commitment to moral standards are only some of the damages incurred. These problems are deeply entrenched within our society; an essential step in coming to grips with them is to see more clearly the many dimensions on which identity must be understood, as well as the role identity plays in shaping our personal and societal dreams and dilemmas.

How can the question of identity be explored further? It is a concept most often associated with psychology (e.g. Erikson, Maslow); however, the psychological view tends to foster the individualistic perspective already deemed problematic (and already over-represented in the adult education literature). A different approach is needed.

Autobiography

This is where autobiography comes in. Autobiography is centrally concerned with questions of identity; it is, essentially, an expression of identity in narrative form. A propos of the view that the individual is a distinctly modern notion, so too is autobiography a notably modern literary form. It's not that autobiography (or individuality, for that matter) didn't exist in past times; the changes are ones of scale and proportion.

In recent years autobiography has become a "growth industry" (Butler & Bentley, 1988). Academically, it has moved from the margins of literary criticism to a position at centre stage (Jay, 1982). More generally, there has been growing popular interest in writing one's own autobiography. This latter phenomenon in particular has had an impact on adult education, in terms of new course offerings in adult and continuing education calendars, and even as a topic of graduate study. At UBC, the Adult Education Department offers a course on autobiography as an education technique and research method (Thornton, 1989).

From noting these trends it may appear that all we get from autobiography is a confirmation of the earlier point that the individual -- a particular vision of the individual, with a unique and estimable identity -- is much at home in modern times, and in adult education. However, there are other ways to approach autobiography which may be of greater value. Given Taylor's view that the modern individual (and hence the underlying conditions of the 'modern predicament') is best understood as an historical development, an historical survey of the changes which autobiography has undergone as an evolving literary form may provide some insights. Scholars in literary criticism have recently shown some interest in this task, and from their efforts it is possible to make some (greatly abbreviated) observations.

Regarding the changing portrayal of identity, three general phases have been noted (Pascal, 1960; Weintraub, 1978). In the first phase, in a scattering of early works which are generally autobiographical but not self-styled as such (the word autobiography does not appear until the eighteen hundreds), including for example St. Augustine's Confessions, Dante's La Vita Nuova, St. Theresa's Life, identity is portrayed as a matter of fitting into a larger order of things: 'Divine Will' for St. Augustine, 'Truth' for Dante. The autobiographical accounts from this phase tell a story of spiritual reckoning with limited personal disclosure.

In more recent autobiographical writings, the second phase, beginning with works by Montaigne, Goethe, Rousseau, and continuing in the popular writings of present day autobiographers (literary and otherwise), identity is portrayed quite differently. The view is less framed by external dicta and more motivated by a desire for personal self-expression. Identity is located within: 'the inner self' becomes a focus of reflection and intense scrutiny. Autobiography of this phase reflects the birth, growth and flowering of the notion of the singular, private individual prevalent in -- and characteristic of -- modern civilization.

The third phase is a backlash to the second, with roots in Nietzsche but essentially a development of the past few decades (Olney, 1980; Jay, 1982). It is critical of the portrayal of identity in traditional (second phase) autobiographies as romantic and illusory (Olney, 1980). The notion that each individual possesses a unified, unique inner self is considered a myth, a fairytale. In works by Derrida, Barthes, Lacan, for example, there is no 'true identity' which precedes the autobiographical text; the self is understood to exist in the text only, in the verbal structures of language and not prior to them (Jay, 1982).

These phases are of course very broad and generalized, and this overview of them only very cursory. However, the intention has been to reveal that the historical changes in the understanding of identity as suggested by Taylor are borne out by the documentary record provided by autobiographical writing, past and present. From observing these changes, it would appear that the individualistic understanding of identity prevalent within modern society (and adult education as a microcosm of it) remains imbued with what contemporary literary critics would call a 'Romantic' understanding of the individual which takes one model of identity (a naive one) to be the only model.

Conclusion

What do adult education, identity, and autobiography have in common? Although on first blush it may appear that they are unrelated topics, on further consideration they share some essential concerns. Within adult education, individualistic assumptions about adult identity have played a major role in theoretical attempts to define what is distinctive about adult education. However, this approach has been challenged as biased, idealistic, and not reflective of either social or individual reality. It ignores existing social problems (or casts them as personal problems), and perpetuates a limited understanding of identity with no apparent recognition of the way this view of identity is tied equally to modern accomplishments as well as modern societal malaise. The economics of limitless growth and psychological models of personal growth are intertwined features of the modern identity.

One way of exploring the question of identity further is through the medium of autobiography. We can see through historical trends in autobiographical style and popularity that identity has undergone significant changes, in tune with other widespread changes in Western culture. Within the scope of this paper it's impossible to do more than point to autobiography as a potential source of more in-depth analysis of the changes in the conception of identity, and their relation to other changes (positive and negative) associated with modernity.

A final significant point is that the romantic 'phase two' of autobiography is closely related to the ideology of individualism within mainstream adult education, and that the literature of 'phase three', critical of individualistic assumptions, is echoed by the growing criticism within the adult education literature of andragogy and other adult characteristics approaches to theory. Autobiography is of increasing conceptual interest in more disciplines than just literary criticism (Jay, 1982) and may be a sign of things to come.

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Mythological Motifs of Differentiation and Individuation in an Adult Learning Group

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Abstract To facilitate significant personal learning, adult discussion groups need to work through the unhealthy sense of oneness and unity ("participation mystique") that typifies group formation. The full emergence of the individual committed to the group needs to be encouraged. Using the perspective of depth psychology, this study investigated the dynamics which are manifest by an adult learning group that is working through the sense of "participation mystique." The results indicate that differentiation and individuation are characterized by a series of mythological motifs and dynamics, the sequential pattern of which resembles the evolution of consciousness in human cultures. Implications of these findings for understanding how personal transformations occur in adult learning groups are discussed.

Facilitators of adult learning frequently use group discussion to provide adults with the opportunity to explore their life experiences (Houle, 1972; Paterson, 1970). In addition to enhancing understanding of content or subject matter, group participation is clearly recognized for its capacity for constellating and bringing into focus a variety of different aspects of life experiences (Whitmont, 1964), deepening awareness and understanding of the meanings that these experiences hold for members (Brookfield, 1985), and of precipitating personal change (Oatley, 1980). Various terms have been used to refer to this type of learning and its outcomes ((Boyd and Myers, 1988; Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1981; Oatley, 1980). All reflect the belief that adult learning should bring about increased knowledge of ourselves as persons through an enhanced understanding of our relationship to both our inner and outer worlds. In this paper, this form of learning will is referred to as "personal learning."

The Problem Research has established a fairly descriptive picture of group conditions that facilitate personal learning. In such environments members feel comfortable and secure about being and acting their true selves, yet feel committed to the group itself. Relatively little is known, however, about the dynamics involved in establishing these conditions. The necessity for better understanding these processes is pointed to by the fact that groups frequently do not evolve such environments. As Brookfield (1985) indicated, groups often become emotional battlegrounds in which psychodynamic struggles are waged. One of these struggle involves the development of the group from a relatively undifferentiated whole when it forms to a group in which members are fully differentiated and individuated out from the group. This process is characterized by a gradual acceptance of and support for individual beliefs, values, and attitudes by other group members. The sense of fusion and undifferentiation which exists in the initial stages of a group's life cycle can serve to constrain and inhibit relationships and interactions. If the group remains undifferentiated, the facilitation of personal learning becomes more difficult. Yet, differentiation and individuation are only part of the process of developing an environment conducive to personal learning. A strong sense of commitment to the group-as-a-whole must also develop. It is this realization among group members that makes the development of personal learning so problematic. The purpose of this paper is to report the results of a study that was designed to test hypotheses regarding the processes a group uses to confront and work through this initial condition of fusion and undifferentiation.

Conceptual Framework From the perspective of depth psychology, a group's initial condition of fusion and undifferentiation reflects what Jung (Progoff, 1953), referred to as "participation mystique" (referred to hereafter simply as "participation"). "Participation is a psychological principle that refers to a largely unconscious process of projecting part of one's personality into the group-as-a-whole (hereafter referred to as the social system; Boyd, 1983). The social system becomes defined according to the inner worlds of the individual members (Samuels, 1985) and is the experienced and related to as if it were the projected content. Because the social system becomes more familiar, individuals obtain a limited degree of "control" over it. The process, however, results in an inability of the individual to fully distinguish himself or herself from the social system. Thus, as a group forms and members become caught up in "participation," a relative lack of conscious differentiation characterizes the relationship of the individuals to the social system, reflected in the artificial sense of oneness or unity that characterizes early life in small groups.

"Participation" is a major characteristic of unconsciousness, while differentiation and individuation within the group reflect increasing consciousness (Progoff, 1953). Thus, it is possible to study differentiation and individuation from the perspective of consciousness development as an attribute of the social system (Boyd, 1983). For this reason, Neumann's (1954) theory of the cultural evolution of human consciousness was used as a framework with which to conceptualize the problem. Using an historical approach to the study of mythology and religion, Neumann concluded that the development of consciousness within a given culture is characterized by distinct mythological motifs. Each motif reflects a particular state of consciousness within the culture, with later motifs manifesting a gradually increasing sense of differentiation and individuation (consciousness). These later levels of consciousness are characterized by a decrease in mythical modes of thought, and an increased reliance on more rational approaches to setting and solving problems (Whitmont, 1982). Neumann (1954) identified three principal cycles of myth in the evolution of consciousness, reflecting distinct forms of consciousness (Ulanov, 1971). Each of these cycles or forms of consciousness is symbolically represented in a distinct set of archetypal themes or motifs, manifest by certain configurations of involuntary fantasy images, emotions, attitudes, and actions.

One of the major forms of consciousness reflected in mythological motifs is that of matriarchal consciousness (Ulanov, 1971). The present study focused on this phase of consciousness because, according to theoretical descriptions (Whitmont, 1964), it is in the matriarchal phase that a group first confronts the condition of "participation." Hypothesizing a matriarchal phase of consciousness in group development is consistent with the psychoanalytic literature in small group research. The occurrence of the "mother image" motif in small groups is well documented (Dirkx, 1987). This image is understood to reflect a form of projective identification, in which aspects of one's personal as well as archetypal mothers are projected into the group

(Samuel, 1985). A few researchers have suggested that the mother image eventually differentiates into a good and bad image through the psychological mechanism of splitting (Segal, 1973). It is with this research tradition that the present study most closely articulates. Taken together with Neumann's (1954) theory of the development of consciousness, this process of splitting can be viewed as a possible dynamic which is used by the group to overcome the forces of "participation" and promote differentiation and individuation. The process allows the individual, on the basis of the split, to enjoy the "good mother" and attack the "bad mother" with less confusion and without fear of punishment or loss.

In this study, it is the image of the social system as "bad mother," with its frightening characteristics of smothering, constraining, and destroying one's individuality, that conceptualizes the phenomenon of "participation." The image of the "good mother," on the other hand, captures the sense of the transformative group environment, one that promotes the full emergence of the individual and the capacity for personal learning. When the social system is in its infancy, the archetype of the mother serves a positive function in nurturing a group so that it may learn to stand on its own feet. At some point, however, the sense of protection and nurturance provided by the symbolic representation of the social system as mother begins to be perceived as constraining, smothering and potentially destructive of individuality (i.e. a bad mother). The group then struggles to overcome this destructive image (the encounter period), with the hope of establishing an image of the social system as predominantly a benevolent matriarch (the "good mother" image).

How the group approaches and resolves the problem of "participation," reflected in the motif of the bad mother, was the central focus of this study. It was hypothesized that three phenomena characterize the process of working through this group condition: 1) the emergence of mythological motifs that reflect an evolving matriarchal consciousness; 2) the development of an encounter period, in which the social system develops a fight basic assumption culture (Bion, 1961) aimed at attacking and ridding the social system of the projected bad mother image; and 3) the emergence within the encounter period of a focal person who acts as a repository for the members' emotionality toward the group as mother, who personifies the matriarchal motifs in her or his behavior, and around whom the fight culture takes place (focal person activity).

Methods In this study, the social system (group-as-a-whole) was regarded as the unit of analysis and a single-case approach was used as the research design. The instructional group studied consisted of eight women and two men, all returning adult students enrolled in a graduate level course on the dynamics of instructional groups. During the experimental phase of the course, the group met weekly for 10 sessions. Each session was 150 minutes in length. These sessions had no explicit curriculum or agenda assigned by the professor of the course. Rather, the students were told that the purpose of these sessions was to help them develop an awareness and better understanding of the dynamics of small groups, and their behavior within these groups. The designated leader utilized a nondirective approach to the group and offered occasional interpretations of the dynamics of the social system in the form of metaphors or analogies.

Each of the 10 experimental sessions was videotape and audiotape recorded.

Procedures and coding manuals were developed for coding the videotapes for mythological motifs, basic assumptions, and focal person activity. Each of the procedures used a team approach to coding, with the judges first making independent judgments for each coding unit. Disagreements in the codings were discussed until the judges agreed on a single coding. It was this coding that was then used for analysis. Both the independent codings and the codings following discussion were recorded. Validity of the three coding procedures was established. Inter-judge reliability was measured for each of the three procedures using the weighted proportion of agreement procedure (Cohen, 1968). Based on the independent, pre-conference codings of the judges, the reliability coefficients over all sessions coded were .72 for identifying mythological motifs, .63 for identifying basic assumptions, and .93 for identifying focal person activity. These values are consistent with previous studies using high inference, observational procedures. All 10 sessions were coded for mythological motifs, archetypal themes and basic assumptions. On the basis of the coding of mythological motifs, only the last three sessions were coded for focal person activity. It was during these sessions that the motif of encounter with the social system as bad mother was manifest (A more detailed description of the conceptual framework and the methodology can be found in Dirkx, 1987).

Findings The data were analyzed in terms of the frequencies with which codings were recorded in each of the coding categories, expressed as a percent of total interaction time coded. Analysis of the coding frequencies for the different mythological motifs indicated a predominance of matriarchal concerns in the group (69% of total group interaction). The different matriarchal motifs observed and their relative frequencies were: 1) awareness of the great mother 25%; 2) separation of the good mother and the bad mother 24%; 3) encounter with the bad mother 10%; and 4) resolution of the encounter with the bad mother 10%. Only one patriarchal motif (separation of the good father and the bad father) was observed, which constituted 13% of total interaction time. In general, the initial appearance of the matriarchal motifs in the social system occurred in the relative order predicted by Neumann's (1954) theory. The encounter theme (struggle between the symbols of the social system as a good and bad matriarch) was manifest in the last three sessions of the group, comprising approximately 10% of all group interaction time. The findings also indicated that an image of the social system as a good mother did eventually predominate over perceptions of the social system as a bad mother (the resolution theme). The resolution motif was expressed in sessions nine and 10 and accounted for approximately 10% of all group interaction time. Thus, the first hypothesis was corropcrated.

A basic assumption of fight, however, was not observed during the encounter period, falsifying the second hypothesis. In fact. less than 15 minutes of basic assumption fight was coded over all 10 sessions. The results supported the third hypothesis, that is, that focal person activity characterizes the encounter period. Focal person activity was manifest for approximately 11% of the total time in which the encounter theme was observed. The behavior of the focal persons identified during this period were coded as reflecting matriarchal motifs. In addition, these focal persons demonstrated ambivalence in their behaviors towards the matriarchal image of the group-as-a-whole.

In summary, the results demonstrated that a predominance of matriarchal motifs, reflecting issues of relatedness, was manifest over the 10 group session. The motifs appeared in the order predicted by Neumann's theory, suggesting that individuation in small groups is manifest in distinct mythological motifs that characterize different stages of consciousness. The results also indicated that focal person activity played a role in the individuation process and the focal person personified matriarchal motifs, as predicted. The data, however, failed to provide evidence of a significant basic assumption of fight in the social system.

Discussion and Conclusion Additional studies are obviously needed to corroborate these findings. It is possible, however. to draw some tentative conclusions, which may be interpreted as hypotheses for further study. The evidence presented here suggests that the breaking down and working through of the group condition described as "participation mystique" is characterized by a series of matriarchal motifs, revolving around the dual images of the social system as both a good and bad mother image. These motifs demonstrate a gradually increasing awareness among the members of the social system as a matriarchal image and a differentiation of this image into its benevolent and malevolent dimensions. Members appear to increasingly differentiate and separate themselves from the group-as-mother, resembling processes of individual development (Mahler, 1975) as well as cultural development (Neumann, 1954). There is support in this study for the hypothesis that resolution the "participation" involves the members in a struggle with the perception of the social system as a bad mother.

Thus, the encountering and working through of "participation" and the furthering of the processes of differentiation and individuation so necessary for personal learning in groups can be viewed as a process of evolving consciousness within the social system of the group. Distinct mythological motifs that are manifest within group interaction suggest different phases of this process. If the group reported on here can be considered similar to other interactive learning groups, the development of consciousness is, indeed, a psychodynamic struggle. This is supported by the fact that resolution of the struggle with the group as a bad mother did not fully emerge until the last three sessions and by the levels of emotionality present throughout much of the group's life cycle. What was surprising, however, was the apparent absence of a basic assumption culture of fight. This would indicate that the confrontation with the bad mother image of the group is not manifest in a group-wide sense of an aggressive, hostile attack. Future studies will be examining the possibility that the focal person carries the sense of fight for the social system, in the form of a fight valency rather than basic assumption (Bion, 1961). In addition, we are examining the possibility that consciousness development within the social system facilitates personal transformation of individual members. For example, it is possible that individuals may unconsciously "re-visit" and "rework" matriarchal stages of their own development as the group works through the condition of "participation." This line of research holds substantial promise for increasing our understanding of how adult learning groups facilitate and promote personal learning.

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EVERETT DEAN MARTIN: THE FORMATIVE YEARS

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Abstract: 1906-1915 are insightful years for any researcher seeking to examine Everett Dean Martin's relationship to the area of adult education. During these years Martin established himself as a writer and lecturer. He also set forth his vision of adult education.

At the 1987 Adult Education Research Conference in Laramie, Wyoming, Michael Day and Donald Seckinger suggested that Everett Dean Martin be viewed as a significant contributor to the early years of the adult education movement in the United States.[1] The authors noted that, though Martin clearly articulated a position regarding adult education during the 1920s and 1930s, his comments have often been neglected or ignored by contemporary researchers. Since the Laramie conference, two additional treatments of Martin were published, one by David Stewart and the other by Harold Stubblefield.

In Adult Learning in America: Eduard Lindeman and His Agenda for Lifelong Education, Stewart represented Martin as a rival with whom Lindeman had to contend.[2] In the few paragraphs devoted to Martin, Stewart dismissed the man as an annoying elitist.[3] But a more sympathetic view of Martin was provided by Stewart in his review of Stubblefield's book, Towards a History of Adult Education in America: The Search for a Unifying Principle.[4] In the review Stewart presented Martin as a paradoxical figure who "was a forceful and cogent speaker, having the ability to translate difficult subject matter into manageable and interesting forms."[5] Stewart also credited Stubblefield with clarifying Martin's relationship with Lindeman.[6]

Stubblefield's treatment of Martin was much more lengthy and certainly more thorough than Stewart's.[7] Though Martin was once again criticized for professing a narrow view of the purpose of adult education, Stubblefield recognized some of Martin's contributions to the area of adult education: his lifelong commitment to liberal education, his work as the Director of the People's Institute and his emphasis on mental maturity.

But there are some serious shortcomings in the depictions of Martin provided by Stubblefield and Stewart. Both authors relied heavily on published writings and secondary sources for their interpretations of Martin's life and ideas. Stewart's understanding of Martin seems to be derived, primarily, from Martin's 1926 publication, The Meaning of a Liberal Education. The sources cited in Stubblefield's section on Martin included five of Martin's books and a few of his essays. For his discussion of Martin's involvement with the People's Institute in New York City, Stubblefield depended heavily on the work of Robert Fisher.[8] A second shortcoming in the authors' treatment of Martin was the stark absence of any significant biographical information on this individual. Indeed, when a brief biographical sketch is provided, as in Stubblefield's work, there were often a number of errors.[9] Lastly, when a writer such as Stubblefield notes that Martin's career in adult education began with the People's Institute,[10] that he "first presented his theory of humanistic education for adults in 1920,"[11] or that in the thirties he began to concentrate on "the problem of belief in the modern world,"[12] the reader should expect some evidence to support these conclusions.

THE STUDY

The current study is an investigation of Everett Dean Martin's ideas and experiences prior to 1916 when his involvement with the People's Institute began. As implied above, little attention has been given to this period of Martin's life, a period which shall be referred to as the formative years. Though little attention has been given to Martin during these years, in spite of the fact that he was already 36 years of age when he began teaching for the Institute, a number of assumptions have been made. One commonly made assumption is that Martin's career in adult education began with his appointment to the People's Institute. Another assumption is that his position regarding adult education was initially formulated and expressed during his years at the Institute. The current investigation also sought to address these assumptions in light of documents which specifically deal with Martin's life before he arrived at the People's Institute.

The focus of this summary is Martin's thought through 1914 and his approach to education. A more in-depth examination of Martin's formative years, including 1915, will be provided at the Madison AERC.

Fortunately, for the researcher interested in Martin's formative period, a collection of his papers and some files containing correspondence concerning him are housed at Scripps College in Claremont, California. Among the papers are drafts of sermons and lectures given by Martin during his years as a minister, 1906-1915, as well as material from his years as a professor of social philosophy at Scripps. Also, there is a rather interesting collection of letters written during the Fall of 1915--the period in which Martin formally left the ministry. In addition to the Scripps Collection, researchers also have access to nearly 150 editorials written by Martin for The Register and Leader (a major Des Moines newspaper) during the years 1914-1915. A number of Martin's sermons and lectures were also featured in this newspaper.

FINDINGS

Unfortunately, even after consulting the above sources, the researcher is presented with little information on Martin prior to 1906. Martin was born in Jacksonville, Illinois, on July 5th,1880. He was the oldest child of at least six children. There is little information on Martin's parents. Martin's mother (Mollie), it seems, corresponded with him quite frequently; his father (Bunker E.) was a tobacconist who died of tuberculosis sometime before 1915. At the age of twenty-four Martin graduated 'Cum Laude' from Illinois College, in Jacksonville, where he also delivered the Salutatory Address, "College Responsibility."[13] Shortly thereafter he attended the McCormick Theological Seminary in Chicago. In 1907 he married Esther W. Kirk, also from Jacksonville, and they had three daughters: Mary, Margaret and Elizabeth. From 1906 to 1915 Martin served as a minister in Illinois and Iowa (1906-08, First Congregational Church, Lombard, Il.; 1908-11, People's Church, Dixon, Il.; 1911-15, the First Unitarian, Church, Des Moines, IA.).

One item in the Scripps Collection which attests to Martin's thinking in 1906, the year he accepted his first ministerial assignment, is his Bible. On January 9, 1906, Martin inscribed the following thoughts on the inside leaf of his Bible:

> "My creed: I believe in an ever present, imminent God, on whom all things depend from moment to moment. Who working through natural, psychic and moral laws is present in every phenomenon ever working toward perfection in accord with a great plan which I can but half guess, but in which I feel that I as a man have my small part to perform. I am inspired to labor to make this world a little better for my being in it, by Our Jesus, who revealed the ethical or spiritual nature of God in his personality & life & devoutness unto death in service & love to men. I will give my attrition to him and strive to obey him depending upon his example and the personal influence of the God he revealed to keep me in harmony and good will to you & men."[14]

Both Martin's creed and his calling to the ministry were severely tested during the ten years which followed. But his reverence for the individual who lived life ethically would only be strengthened during this period; for Martin, Jesus Christ was such as individual.

Among the beliefs of Martin which have yet to be addressed is his early attitude toward socialism. Martin, like others, felt that the human situation had to be understood in light of economic conditions. He often proclaimed that before any meaningful equality amongst men could be achieved there had to be more economic equality. He also noted that the struggle between capital and labor had to continue "until a new and better civilization is established."[15] While assigned to the People's Church in Dixon, Illinois, Martin delivered a Sunday morning lecture titled "Christianity is Socialism."[16] In the lecture Martin identified the central theme of the Bible as the kingdom of God on earth, "a society of peace and brotherhood."[17] Martin suggested that Jesus hoped to establish such a society and that, like Jesus, the socialist looked toward a better and more just world. For Martin, the core of the socialist movement in America in 1910 was based on the ethics of Jesus. Therefore, for Martin, every Christian was at heart a socialist.

Martin was optimistic, during these years, that a better society was possible. But for this to happen in the twentieth century, Martin believed, a new type of individual was needed. This was a dominate theme of Martin's sermons, lectures, and writings during the period under review. The new person Martin envisioned was summarized in "Human Types," one of his 1914 editorials for The Register and Leader. This editorial also provided an interesting summary of Martin's own beliefs, since he strongly identified with this new type of individual.

> "Many men and women of our times are a new type. There is a constantly increasing number of people in the world now whose spiritual constitution is a little different from any who have ever lived before.
>
> This new type is gradually becoming conscious of itself....

> We are certainly a new type mentally. We are the heirs of the great scientific discoverers of the nineteenth century. We are the results of a hundred years of democratic experiment in government. We are the products of a lot of new ideas in education.
>
> We are a little more humane, less dogmatic, more restless, less romantic, more sensitive, less prudish, and we demand more of life than our ancestors.
>
> We may not be any wiser than the past, but we are more open-minded. We are more plastic. We are a little less sure of our 'principles' and we care less about appearances.
>
> But we are earnest. We think we are religious in a little more practical way. And we, too, are finding the sanctities of living in our own way.
>
> We feel a little differently about some of the inherited definitions and customs and social institutions under which our fathers seem to have been more comfortable than we are.
>
> God knows what we shall do in the world. We mean to make it some better. But we will gradually make things different; you may be sure of that."[18]

In addition to the highly ethical life which the Jesus story provided, the lives and writings of two other individuals strongly influenced Martin's thinking at this time: William James and Carl Ludwig Nietzsche. Martin considered James to be the most interesting philosopher that America had produced.[19] He strongly identified with James. Martin commended the following Jamesian positions: that both good and evil existed in the world; that the future was open and not already settled; that with few certainties provided, living was a noble struggle; and, that the individual will was a major creative force in bettering the world.[20]

Martin regarded Nietzsche as the "most refined, artistic, sensitive, deeply spiritual souls of the nineteenth century."[21] As in the work of James, it was the theme of personal struggle and the emphasis on the individual in Nietzsche's writings which appealed to Martin. Nietzsche's aristocratic manner also seems to have appealed to Martin. Martin considered Nietzsche to be a true aristocratic, i.e., a free spirit, a thinker, a great teacher.[22] It seems that the work of James and Nietzsche contributed significantly to Martin's view of the new human type, a new aristocracy whose membership was to be based on the mental maturity of the individual, not on hereditary, class or position. During these formative years Martin already stressed mental maturity as an agenda for life and for education.

In 1931 editors of the The Nation asked Martin to submit an essay describing his beliefs.[23] In the article Martin noted that how and why people believe was more important than what they believe.[24] This seems to be the same point Martin tried to make during his formative period; the new mental type was simply more mature, i.e., sensitive, open-minded and less sure.

The primary method Martin adopted to discuss his secular gospel of maturity was quite similar to that used so effectively at the People's Institute: the lecture series with discussion. In October, 1911, Martin announced a thirty-three session course of lectures titled, "The Jesus Story: In the light of the Science of Historical Criticism."[25]

on October 8, 1911. In his introduction to the series Martin noted, "These lectures are not given in the interests of the dogma of any sect or school, but are designed to acquaint the hearer with the scientific method of bible study as it is applied by recognized biblical scholars of the various churches, and to afford candid discussion of the problems growing out of the origin of the Christian tradition, that we may know the truth about Jesus so far as it may be known at the present time."[26] As in the case of the People's Institute, the public was invited and there was no admission fee. From 1911 to 1915 continued the lecture series format. It is interesting to note that in October, 1913 Martin began a sixteen week series of lectures on "The Meaning of an Education in the Twentieth Century."[27]

CONCLUSIONS

The portrait of Martin gleaned from the Scripps Collection and The Register and Leader is quite illuminating. While employed as a minister in Illinois and Des Moines, Martin established himself as both a lecturer and writer. In his lectures he stressed the ethical and human characteristics of Jesus, and, rather optimistically, looked toward a more just and enlightened society based upon his example. When his editorials appeared in 1914, Martin vigorously argued for a new type of individual. Characteristics of this new human type included sensitivity, experimentation, and open-mindedness. As suggested, Martin strongly identified with this new type of individual and was heavily influenced in his thinking by the writings of James and Nietzsche. During the period under review Martin appeared to have maneuvered, rather adroitly, through a number of ideologies. He was a minister and a philosopher, a democrat and an aristocrat, an idealist and a pragmatist, a socialist and an individualist. He was successful, and, on the surface, a rather satisfied and contented minister.

NOTES

1. Michael Day and Donald Seckinger, "Everett Dean Martin: Spiritual Leader of the Adult Education Movement in the United States," in Adult Education Research Conference Proceedings, ed. Robert Inkster (Laramie: University of Wyoming, 1987), 55-60.
2. David Stewart, Adult Learning in America: Eduard Lindeman and His Agenda for Lifelong Education, (Malabar, FL: Robert E. Krieger, 1987), 92.
3. Ibid., 92.
4. David Stewart, review of Towards a History of Adult Education in America: The Search for a Unifying Principle, by Harold Stubblefield, Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research, October, 1988, 27-28.
5. Ibid., 28.
6. Ibid.
7. Harold W. Stubblefield, Towards a History of Adult Education in America: The Search for a Unifying Principle, (London: Croom Helm, 1988).
8. Robert B. Fisher, The People's Institute of New York City, 1897-1934: Culture, Progressive Democracy, and the People, Ph.D. Dissertation, New York

University, 1974.

9. Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA. Stubblefield notes that Martin left the ministry in 1914 and that he moved to Claremont, California in 1938. Martin actually left the ministry in the Fall of 1915 and moved to Claremont during the Summer of 1936.

10. Stubblefield, Towards a History of Adult Education, 64.

11. Ibid., 72.

12. Ibid., 69.

13. Commencement Announcement. Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA., file #10.

14. Inscription on Bible, Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA.

15. Everett Dean Martin, "A Good Fighter," The Register and Leader (Des Moines), 15 Feb. 1914, p.4.

16. Everett Dean Martin, "Christainty is Socialism." Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA., file #39 .

17. Ibid., 7.

18. Everett Dean Martin, "Human Types," The Register and Leader (Des Moines), 7 Apr. 1914, p.6.

19. Everett Dean Martin, "A Fighting Chance," The Register and Leader (Des Moines), 16 Aug.,1914, p.6.

20. Ibid.

21. Everett Dean Martin, "Nietzsche," The Register and Leader (Des Moines), 20 Nov.,1914, p.6.

22. Ibid.

23. Everett Dean Martin, "What I believe," The Nation, 21 October, 1931.

24. Ibid.,426.

25. Announcement of Lecture Series: "The Jesus Story: In the light of the Science of Historical Criticism," beginning 8 Oct. ,1911. Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA., file #50.

26. Ibid.

27. Announcement of Lecture Series: "The Meaning of an Education in the Twentieth Century," beginning 12 Oct. ,1913. Everett Dean Martin Collection, The Ella Strong Denison Library, Scripps College, Claremont, CA., file #69.

The subject of modern adult education

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Abstract

Very little has been written about the subject (individual, person, adult learner, etc) who is at the core of adult learning and therefore of adult education. In this paper I want to make explicit two different models of the subject, which are probably among the most spread ones in American adult education. **Stephen Brookfield** (1987) stands for "self-directed-" and "change-in-consciousness-learning", whereas **Peter Jarvis** (1987) stands for an "experiental learning" approach. The first one is tied to the Enlightenment model of the subject; the second one to its opposed model of individuality. The paper will show that the first model will become increasingly obsolete as the "crisis of modernity" progresses, whereas the second model might progress precisely because of the "crisis of modernity".

"Educating the subject of modernity"

Significantly, the recently **started** debate about the "subject of education" (Oelkers 1987) has its intellectual origins in the philosophical questioning of the project of modernity, of its future (Habermas 1985; Wellmer 1985) and of its subject (e.g. Frank et al. 1988). The philosophy of education is affected by this debate for two main reasons: first, because the **subject** is at the core of education and of the project of modernity, and second because **modernity is in itself an educational project** (Oelkers 1983). Therefore, if there is a "crisis of modernity", both, education and the subject are in trouble. This remark of course also applies to the subject of adult education, although a similar debate in our field has not yet started.

As it appears from **recent** writings among mainly German philosophers of education (Biesenbach 1988; Oelkers 1987; Pongratz 1987), the discussion about the subject of education must focus on the **relation between the individual and the society,** since it is in this conflicting field that the education of the subject takes place. The proof that "society" is per definition the "modernizing society" can be seen from the fact that education is thought, since the 18th century, as a process of "developing" the subject, in order to become the subject of modernity. The individual is conceived as being gifted with some basic capacities, like reflection, which's activation (in relation to (modernizing) society) contributes to the development of the subject. In other words, **educating the subject cannot be thought independantly of some kind of developmental process,** nor is it conceivable without an interaction with (modernizing) society. I will leave here aside the dynamic (developmental) aspect of the subject, to concentrate on his/her relation to society.

In this matter there exist mainly two different philosophies of the subject: the Enlightenment or "subject-" philosophy considers subjectivity, i.e. the consciousness of being a subject, as a condition to individuality, which means the awareness of being different from other individuals. This conception can model the education of the subject only as an opposition, as an emancipation and as a growing autonomy (Chené 1983) from the constraints of society, i.e. ultimately as a "hindered project" (Oelkers 1987:339). It must therefore assume the society, against which autonomy is developed, as being coercitive or at least coherent.
A second, much more recent and mainly linguistic philosophical approach of the subject (e.g. Tugendhat 1979) and his/her education instead considers individuality, i.e. the awareness of being different from other individuals, as a condition to subjectivity (i.e. the consciousness of being a subject). This conception ultimately leads to modelling the education of the subject in terms of "autonomizing" sub-systems (Luhmann 1984), and can also operate in highly unstructured and even incoherent, i.e. in post-modern societies.

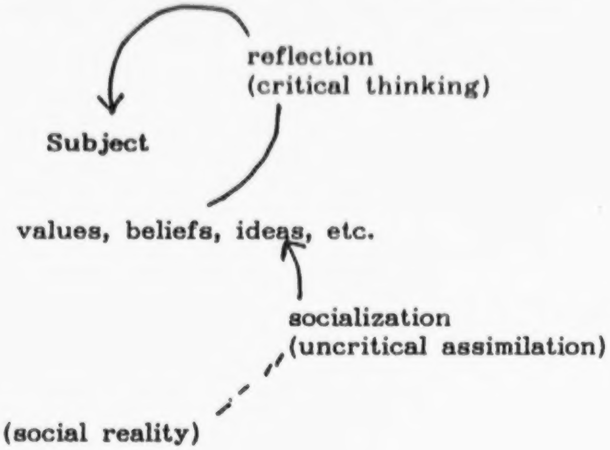
Both conceptions will be discussed here by identifying some of their crucial elements in Brookfield's model of "critical thinking" for the first one, and in Jarvis' model of "experiential learning" for the second one.

Stephen Brookfield: "developing critical thinkers"

Brookfield, like Jarvis and all other models which consider learning to be in one way or another tied to reflection, starts off with this model of reflection which is rooted in the ideal of positive science; here, knowledge is the result of a reflection (like in a mirror) of the objective reality into the mind of the knower (e.g. Frank 1986). Through rational examination (the ideal of scientific experimentation) the knower, as gifted with the quasi transcendental ability to reflect, can check whether the reflection in his/her mind actually corresponds to the positive reality. The aim is to produce objective knowledge through rational reflection.
This model is not in itself dynamic; to become dynamic it has to be placed into the conflicting relation between the individual and (modernizing) society.

The "objects" which have to be rationnally analyzed - or, as Brookfield says "critically reflected"- are "uncritically assimilated" societal beliefs, values, ideas, etc. By reflecting upon them, the adult is supposed, in a first step, to "become critically aware" of their underlying assumptions (which shaped one's behavior up to now). In other words, the adult becomes a subject (subjectivity), where before he/she was an object, i.e. a victim of society; through critical awareness, the subject becomes autonomous and emancipated. In a second step, the subject is now able to explore and select alternative assumptions, *"that are more satisfactory and congruent with our relationships and ways of living"* (p.27); this is the step of acquiring individuality. Such "critical thinking" should, in the spirit of Enlightenment, lead to the self-conscious, autonomous and emancipated subject of modernity. And education should help to bring about this ideal, by facilitating the (developmental) process of emancipation. The outcome should be a subject, who masters at least aspects of his/her (symbolic) environment, according to the following model:

Table No.1: the model of the subject according to Brookfield



But the automonous and emancipated subject is not Brookfield's ideal, since, according to him, the process which makes one to "become a critical thinker" is not a process of a more and more self-sustained and autonomous consciousness; by using the learning criterion of "experience" - with the double meaning of humanistic psychology and progressive philosophy - the process of "becoming a critical thinker" becomes closely tied to (modernizing) society. Not the critical consciousness is the criterion against which ideas and actions are then evaluated, but the experiences of everyday life are: new assumptions do not come to replace old ones because they enhance the emancipatory process of the subject, but because they fit into the experiences an adult person makes in his/her (societal) life. Putting like this "critical thinking" into the process of progressive and/or humanistic "growth", means that individuality is ultimately not the result of critical reflection, but the result of "experiencing" reality in a more or less individual way.

In his book, Brookfield shows how the mechanism he calls "critical thinking" - which is a contradiction in terms, since a mechanism cannot be critical, nor can it lead to critical consciousness - can further personal growth and societal development at the same time. This conception does unfortunately not (yet) have a philosophically solid basis, nor can it rely on an intellectually coherent conception of the subject of adult education.

Peter Jarvis: "adult learning in the social context"

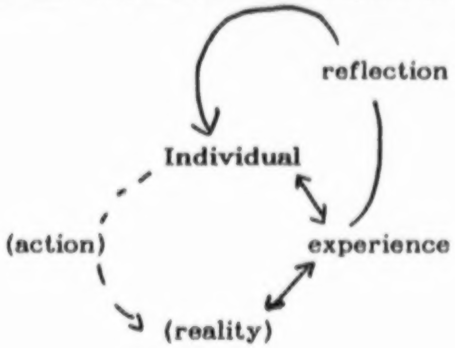
Peter Jarvis precisely tries to elaborate an intellectually solid conception of adult learning, in particular a model, which takes into account its social or rather symbolic dimension. He draws, in order to do that, on one single philosophical tradition, namely the one which leads from behaviorism to pragmatism and progressivism, and ultimately to symbolic interactionnism. He therefore typically stands for this conception, called "experiential learning" or "learning from experience", which, again, comes into fashion. But, neither this philosophical tradition, nor the corresponding model of (adult) learning , actually lead to the enlightened, autonomous and emancipated subject as to be fostered by the educational project of modernity.

Jarvis' model shares with Brookfield's one the basic attribution of the "subject", i.e. his/her ability to (critically) reflect upon an object, where the nature of reflection is also rational and mainly cognitive. Jarvis' point of departure is John Dewey's (1938) pragmatic vision of progressive education, where learning results from reflection upon "experiences". "Experiencing" is but another word for "experimentation" - proof of the scientific ideal behind this learning model - which ultimately leads to "problem solving". Problem solving - even if put into the dynamic perspective of *"growth, or growing as developing, not only physically, but intellectually and morally"* (Dewey 1938:36) - is unable to account for subjectivity, nor is it in itself a project.

Jarvis, aware of the limits of this learning model, tries to overcome them by placing "reflection upon experience" - which is, according to him, the specificity of adult learning - into a social or rather symbolic and interactionnist context. This operation can, at most as I will show, account for individuality, but not for subjectivity. It must also be noted that the symbolic interactionnism of "social behaviorist" G.H. Mead (1934) he refers to, is in perfect intellectual continuity with Dewey's pragmatic philosophy.
By placing Dewey's central concept of "experience" into G.H. Mead's symbolic environment, "reflection upon experience" does not anymore simply lead to "knowledge", "skills" and "attitudes", but also to the build-up of the "self", which is, according to Jarvis, the same as the "person". But the "self" of symbolic interactionnism defines is before all an individual (Fichtner 1979), aware (through role-taking) of being different of other individuals, but nevertheless entirely tuned to (modernizing) society. "Self-awareness", like "problem-solving" in Dewey's model, is in fact a way of responding and adjusting to the (symbolic) environment. Therefore, referring to symbolic interactionnism - which for Jarvis is the same as placing "adult learning in the social

context" - does not alter the underlying pragmatic learning model, as illustrated in the following table:

Table No.2: the model of the subject according to Jarvis



The implicit assumption of symbolic interactionnism, namely that rational reflection upon experiences (in symbolic situations) leads to the development of an individual "self", can also be found with Jarvis: the "self" is an individual who has learned, from his/her experiences, not only knowledge, skills and attitudes, but also to become aware of being different from other individuals (**individuality**). But this individuality is but the result of responding, in an ever more individual way, to the (symbolic) environment; Jarvis calls this individuality the "**biography**". But Jarvis' "biography", "adult" or "person" (like G.H. Mead's "self") is not a subject in the Enlightenment meaning of the word; and this because the object of reflection is not the "self", but the "experienced" relation or interaction of the "self" with the (symbolic) environment. Significantly, it is, according to Jarvis, *"the disjuncture between biography and experience (which) lies at the start of the learning process"* (p.87).
The function of "adult learning" therefore is to develop the "self" as a societally relevant individual, i.e. as an individual which "grows" alongside societal development. This model cannot account for subjectivity, as Jarvis must admit, *"... even in the process of reflective learning a strong possibility exists that the outcome might be of a conformist nature since learners bring to every new situation their own biographies, which are social constructs"* (p.167). In other words, the model of "experiential learning" - be it placed into a social context or not - is unable to account for subjectivity, i.e. it is ultimately unable to account for a learning process of a subject, as imagined by the educational project of modernity.

Can adult education survive the "crisis of modernity"?

It is not necessary to go here into the details of the "crisis of modernity"; suffice to admit that the process of modernization wincreasingly casts doubts on the desirability and realizability of the project of modernity.

As we have seen, the subject and his/her education, are entirely part of this project. If the project is put into question, then the subject is too, whereas "education" can eventually survive by adopting another model of the "subject".

In the project of modernity, the subject develops out of the confrontation with society (its values, beliefs, ideologies, etc.), where the society must be assumed coercitive or at least coherent. If this assumption does not hold true anymore, as philosophers of post-modernity (e.g. Lyotard 1979) and of post-industrial society (e.g. Bell 1973) suggest, subjectivity cannot develop either.

This is intuitively felt by Brookfield, who therefore reduces subjectivity from a project to mechanism; he builds this mechanism into another project, which strives for personal and societal "growth" at the same time, but which in this way evacuates the educational project of modernity.

In Jarvis' model of the individual instead, the aim of adult learning is clearly stated, i.e. societally relevant, competent, skilled, etc. individuals. Since this model does not seek to educate the individual to become a subject (which is, by definition, not possible anymore in a post-modern society), it is therefore not negatively affected by the "crisis of modernity". The opposite might be the case: the more split and the more complex modern society becomes, the more the individuals, as sub-systems which are conscious of being different from other sub-systems, will develop. But this "explosion of society" is not only the end of the project of modernity, but also the end of the project of "educating the subject of modernity". If Jarvis' model might help us to think adult education beyond the "crisis of modernity", it certainly does not offer a way out of this crisis.

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Eduard Lindeman, the Social Gospel, and Adult Education

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Abstract

Many of Eduard Lindeman's main ideas were nurtured during the period when the social gospel movement strongly influenced American Protestantism. Themes such as a collective sense of morality and an active and experimental approach to social change find parallel expressions in the writings of both Lindeman and proponents of the social gospel.

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to discuss themes significant in the social gospel which are paralleled in Lindeman's Meaning of Adult Education and Faith for a New World. Principal data comprise a) Lindeman's Meaning of Adult Education (1961) and lectures entitled Faith for a New World (1943); and b) Walter Rauschenbusch's Social Principles of Jesus (1916) and Christianity and the Social Crisis (1907), leading statements of the theology of the social gospel. An historical analysis of these documents reveals a strong sense of moral concern by social gospel proponents which finds parallel expression in the writings of Lindeman. His moral dimension clearly distinguishes him from those who understand adult education as a value-neutral means-oriented process and serves to provide a foundation for current philosophies of adult education which emphasize social change.

The general perception of Eduard Lindeman is that of a social philosopher who has had significant influence on adult education in the United States. His main contribution, The Meaning of Adult Education (1961), was originally published in 1926 near the end of that quarter century during which the social gospel had most strongly influenced American Protestantism. Social gospel was the name given to a movement which had developed in the latter decades of the nineteenth century out of dissatisfaction with the current emphases of orthodox theology which ignored the social ills attendant to urban, economic, and industrial problems in American society. Proponents of the social gospel called for a reconstruction of society on the basis of New Testament teachings: the elimination of social and economic injustice, particularly involving the working classes; the democratization of political institutions; and the evolutionary movement of all creation toward the fulfillment of God's reign on earth were themes common to the social gospel.

In 1943, Lindeman was invited to give the lectures which honored Walter Rauschenbusch, a theologian whose name has become synonymous with the social gospel. In his introduction, Lindeman wrote "I was one of his devoted admirers and without his knowledge he exercised a profound influence upon my life at a crucial moment" (1943, p. i). Lindeman also wrote of the appeal of Rauschenbusch's "august sense of moral justice" and claimed that he "came nearer being a major prophet for the Machine Age than any other American of his time" (1943, p. i). In his first book, Lindeman referred to Rauschenbusch as the one who broke ground in introducing interpretations of the social significance of Christianity (1921, p. 199). The extent of the influence to which Lindeman attested may be discerned in the degree to which tenets of the social gospel find expression in Lindeman's thought.

Common Themes

A collective morality

In contrast to orthodox Protestantism's emphasis on individual morality as the main expression of religious conviction, proponents of the social gospel emphasized social in addition to individual morality. They argued that organizational and institutional as well as individual morality were necessary expressions of religious conviction. Referring to the Old Testament prophets as their models, they emulated the prophets' call to the nation for social morality and engaged themselves in public action. The acts of a righteous individual were no longer adequate to fight societal problems of the scope being faced in twentieth century America; nothing less than a moral social order would suffice.

Such thinking was part and parcel of Lindeman's mindset. He argued that intellectual efforts become meaningful only when seen in social contexts, and that ultimately all human needs emerge within the collective arena. Further, he claimed that adult education was the means by which individuals and groups could be aided to gain power through democratic means and thereby have an impact on the social environment. Citing negative examples of societal change which occurred because one group overpowered another, Lindeman looked to adult education for consensus building in order to provide the means for a collaborative effort. His vision did not terminate in the educational process; he consistently saw beyond it to collective action. According to Fisher and Podeschi, it was Lindeman's faith that the social dimension of adult education would prevent it from becoming individualistic and have the capability to improve the American society, just as the trade union movement in Great Britain or the farmer-cooperatives in Denmark had been agents of progress in those nations" (Fisher & Podeschi, in press, p. 16).

Lindeman's call for a union between the individual and the collective in adult education - "Adult education will become an agency of progress if its short-time goal of self-improvement can be made compatible with a long-time, experimental but resolute policy of changing the social order" (1961, p. 105) - represented a secular version of the clarion call of the social gospel: individual piety must be combined with social morality in order to achieve the ideal social order. According to Lindeman, every problem situation is potentially susceptible to a collective solution and draws the individual into a posture of commitment to social change. This inherent connection between the individual and the collective in Lindeman is reflected in his description of the social commitment of adult education, "not as an optional addition to an individual process, but as an integral component of a larger pursuit..." (Fisher & Podeschi, in press, pp. 14-15).

In the Rauschenbusch lectures, Lindeman pointed his audience toward an understanding of a moral problem which could be solved only within a collective context. The question which the lectures addressed was that of the world social order: "Could we at this very moment [i.e., in the midst of World War II] prepare ourselves for the tasks of peace? Could we transmute the evil of war into the good of collaboration and unity?" (1943, p. iv). Although he began the lectures with a discussion of belief and faith from the perspective of the individual and linked that discussion to an individual strategy for deciding the kind of peace which would follow hostilities, Lindeman concluded that the crisis in world affairs was a moral and social crisis, one that could not be resolved until a majority of the people were united on the question of ends (1943, p. 60).

A time for action

If one were to introduce the ideal social order, what better time than the present? With great vigor, Rauschenbusch argued against postponement of "social regeneration to a future era to be inaugurated by the return of Christ," claiming that "God is now acting, and Christ is now here" (1907, pp. 345-6). Thus the moral enthusiasm and ethical activism of the social gospellers combined with a strong sense of eschatological immanence to characterize the movement. Their moral standard was invoked by the question, "What would Jesus do?" The thrust of the question is found both in its Christocentric criterion and in its final word, since that word distinguished persons of faith and action from persons of faith.

The activism of the social gospel finds expression in Lindeman's description of intelligence as "consciousness in action--behavior with a purpose" (1961, p. 33). This line of thinking continued in his call to make the individual's experience account for something: "experience is, first of all, doing something; second, doing something that makes a difference; third, knowing what difference it makes" (1961, p. 87). For Lindeman activism had two functions: on the one hand, it was the logical outcome of the problem-solving model; thinking about social change inevitably led to action. But it was action which validated (or invalidated) thoughts by providing a social arena for their testing (1961, p. 121).

A decade and a half later in the Rauschenbusch lectures, Lindeman translated these linkages between intelligence and action into equally strong ties between faith and action: we act because we believe and we believe because we act. Failure to act leads to disbelief. Faith, said Lindeman, "is propulsive. It drives one into action" (1943, p. 13). And action will wipe out fear and disillusionment. Thus Lindeman's plan for peace at the close of World War II was to engage persons in the process of combining their wishes and ideals with action: he wanted persons to act in achieving minimum objectives viewed within the context of an ultimate ideal (1943, p. 52).

Throughout Lindeman's writings, action was linked to the roots of human character. The social gospel emphasis on a "revaluation of social values" and on freeing people "from the spell that the present order has cast over our moral judgments" (1907, p. 350) is reflected in Lindeman's call in the Rauschenbusch lectures to educators to train people in the "art of logical criticism" in order to prevent false beliefs from prevailing (1943, p. 27). In this way, an ordinary citizen could act on his/her own objectives for the post-war world. The outcome of both intelligence and faith was action, and action reinforced belief and knowledge.

The Breadth of Concern

Unwilling to be confined to those organizations and areas of life traditionally regarded as religious, and suspicious that religious institutions might be the sole heirs of the new society, proponents of the social gospel were content with no less than the total of human life and the entire social order as their purview. The impact of their movement was not to be limited to the church, but was to extend to all dimensions of society. Rauschenbusch wrote that Jesus bore within himself "the germs of a new social and political order" and that "His redemption extends to all human needs and powers and relations" (1907, p. 91).

This belief in the universality of the social gospel's ministry found expression in Lindeman's focus on the universality of human experience. Just as the social gospel advocates were unwilling to exempt any aspect of human life from their redemptive concern, Lindeman was unwilling to set aside any part of human experience as unimportant or of lesser value. His thinking about adult education, for example, revolved around the sum of human experience: the learner's experience provided the impetus, the content, and indeed the methodology of adult education. A strikingly similar approach to the use of human experience is found in the Rauschenbusch lectures. Here instead of providing the grist of adult education, human needs determined the nature of belief.

The main problem, according to Lindeman, was that beliefs arising from the needs of a particular time tended to become institutionalized and perpetuated. "It thus happens that the useful beliefs of one era are extended into the next regardless of the altered human requirements," he wrote, and become dogma at the hands of their host institutions. The consequence is moral failure resulting from human "ineptness in bringing the practical affairs of life within the moral sphere" (1943, p. 41).

Although he initially saw the churches as allies in the pursuit of social change and sought an integration of church activities with those of the larger society, especially education, labor, and recreation, he soon found himself in "misunderstood but stubborn opposition to religion in its organized and traditional forms" as he faced a religious positivism which did not share his identification with social action (Gessner, 1956, pp. 22-3). He agreed with the social gospellers that the institutional church was an expression of religious life of the past and needed a religious enthusiasm to break out of that prison. Understandably Lindeman's view of situation-based adult education was designed in part to maintain the currency of its need base and to prevent its content from being institutionalized as had taken place in the religious sector.

An Experimental Approach

Rauschenbusch and other proponents of the social gospel believed that human evolution was moving toward that society described in the New Testament, a society which would unify religion and science. The social sciences in particular would furnish some of the tools necessary to achieve this moral social order. He described "religion, social science, and ethical action" as the "perfect synthesis" to accomplish this goal (1916, p. 76).

Lindeman identified with this approach at two levels. On the face of it, his concern for social change was similar to that expressed by social gospel advocates. He saw himself as a social scientist; as such he was interested in understanding and improving the social order. But fundamentally, he saw himself as a social scientist whose understanding of how to improve the social order depended upon experimentation.

In discussing the meaning of intelligence, Lindeman described it as "experimental....[A person] cannot learn the how and the why of conduct by rules and precepts and other persons' experiences; he must experiment on his own behalf" (1961, p. 17) He proposed the situation-approach to learning which incorporated problem analysis, data gathering, formulation of experimental solutions, and testing those solutions as the learning agenda. The use of experimentation as a way to approach problems was woven throughout Lindeman's writings; it served as an anchor to his methodology and at the same time was the acid test of whether the social gospel was taking seriously the social sciences.

Introducing the Rauschenbusch lectures, Lindeman noted that he had been involved with the same problems as Rauschenbusch but had approached them with the attitude of an experimenter (1943, p. i). In the lectures, Lindeman advised that one should seek to discover the proper amount of faith in an experimental fashion: "A healthy mind, in other words, is one which can acknowledge with grace and ease that infallible proof may not be possible, and that he must, therefore embark upon an experiment; in short, he must conduct a test. If he is then able to elicit pleasure and satisfaction from these tests, those portions of his belief which turn out well will grow in strength and reliability (1943, pp. 9-10). Lindeman described the role of the teacher not as the one to say what should be believed, but as the one to aid "others to find the proper tests for their beliefs" (1943, p. 1). The acquisition of new values and beliefs came through experimentation.

Paralleling the social gospel emphasis, Lindeman also argued for a synthesis of science and religion, asserting that "no truths are so sacred" that science may be prevented from questioning their validity (1943, p. 28). The involvement of science with belief was necessary to progress against the despair and futility which persists in resisting change. Perhaps more than just a synthesis, Lindeman called for subjecting the substance of religious belief to the canons of science: he said, "I believe that science is the most trustworthy instrument for the discovery of truth which man has thus far created....all other claims to truth must...meet the objective tests of the scientific spirit," by which he meant "the disinterested search for truth as distinguished from those claims of truth which rest upon private interests, individual intuitions or non-communicable visions" (1943, pp. 37-38). His faith in science notwithstanding, Lindeman also criticized scientists for creating societal dynamics from which ensued moral difficulties, without also assuming any responsibility for the moral consequences of these forces. Together with the social gospel advocates, he hoped for a functional collaboration between science and morality (1943, p. 61).

Summary

Examination of Eduard Lindeman's Meaning of Adult Education (1961) and Faith for a New World (1943) against the backdrop of major social gospel themes broadens our understanding of the consistency of the moral emphasis basic to his thought and points out parallels between his position and that of social gospel proponents.

Themes introduced in The Meaning of Adult Education are redirected in Faith for a New World and expanded to bring current issues such as social security, racial equality, and international force under consideration. In Faith for a New World, Lindeman also engaged in a conscious effort to bridge between the theological view of Rauschenbusch and his own pragmatic approach to solving human problems, between religious belief and science. These lectures articulate many of the religious themes of the social gospel in essentially secular terms and update the social gospel's agenda for a world engaged in war and hoping for peace. Lindeman's humanistic faith - the capacity to believe in the future - built on the foundation of religion, psychology, science, and philosophy aimed to help the ordinary citizen determine objectives for the post-war world (1943, p. ii).

Parallels in such areas as the nature and significance of collective moral action and the role of the social sciences in Lindeman and the social gospel give rise to the provocative question whether Lindeman was influenced by the social gospel, or whether the social gospel and Lindeman were influenced by a common source.

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THE COLLABORATIVE TEACHING-LEARNING MODE: ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES AND MANAGERS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN BUSINESS

By: Joan Franklin

Abstract

This descriptive study utilizing survey research techniques investigated the degree to which managerial philosophy was related to training and development professionals´ acceptance and practice of those adult learning principles which support the collaborative teaching-learning mode. A significant difference was detected in the acceptance and practice of collaborative techniques by managerial philosophy.

Statement of the Problem

The current focus on human resource development (HRD) has placed priority demands upon training and development professionals who are now recognized as managers and facilitators of adult learning (Fest, 1979). No longer can many organizations place HRD as a peripheral activity. It is now recognized as a vital tool for organizational growth and must demand a central priority in all its planning strategies. Lippitt (1982) agrees that HRD should be planned, designed, and supervised by those who are prepared by education, practice, skill, and ethics--trainers, adult educators, counselors, consultants, or teachers. Both Fest and Lippitt agree that the use of planning strategies for HRD training depend upon the attitudes of facilitators and managers of adult learning.

Professional managers and trainers develop personally favored philosophies. Philosophy helps to provide a meaningful context in which to place the self in relation to the job of managing human resources. Understanding one´s own philosophical orientation is one factor that distinguishes a professional trainer from a novice. Thoughtful trainers know not only what they ought to do, but why they are to do it. The above statement supports the assumption that HRD professionals should have available information relative to their managerial philosophies, their perceptions about human nature and organizational effectiveness, and their assumptions about adult learning style. Awareness of relationships among these elements could benefit HRD training professionals in the pursuit of their own cognitive and affective development and their efforts to effect dynamic HRD programs. It may also provide clearer insights into the nature of specified settings of adult learning.

This study was descriptive in nature and used a survey method to obtain responses from a systematic sample of the target population: National members of the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD). The dependent variable was the trainer´s teaching style. The predictor variable was the managerial philosophy the trainer had toward the trainee. General demographic information for the trainers included size of the organization, age, formal education, major area of study, and years spent teaching adults. The null hypothesis for this study tested the degree to which managerial philosophy was related to training professionals acceptance of the collaborative teaching-learning mode.

Data were collected from members of the national (ASTD). It included 23,000 practitioners, managers, administrators, educators, and researchers in the field of human resource development. This population is spread across nine geographic regions of the United States with more than 140 local chapters. A systematic random sampling of 400 subjects were taken from this membership. The sample consisted of 124 respondents, representing a 31% return rate. The dependent variable of teaching style was measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). The variable of managerial philosophy was assessed by five multiple choice managerial questions derived from McGregor´s (1960) theoretical framework of Theory X and Y assumptions. The analysis utilized the t-test.

PALS (Conti, 1982) is a 44-item summative scale based on principles in the adult education literature. It gives an indication of an instructor´s overall performance for teaching behavior in an adult education setting. High scores on PALS reflect a learner-centered approach to the teaching-learning transaction. Low scores on PALS denote a preference for the teacher-centered approach in which authority resides with the instructor. It contains the seven factors of Learner Centered Activities, Personalizing Instruction, Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, Climate Building, Participation in the Learning Process, and Flexibility for Personal Development.

The instrument that assessed the philosophical orientation of the trainer for the trainee was a five item questionnaire constructed by the researcher that ascertained the Theory X or Theory Y orientation. The theoretical framework used was McGregor´s (1960) Theory X and Theory Y assumptions. All of the question stems reflected the domain of trainer assumptions about trainees and their learning. Each of the five question stems required a choice from among four responses. A panel and a pilot study for this instrument was conducted respectively. For construct validity the analysis yielded .86; p,.0001 using the Kendal W. For the reliability of the instrument the analysis yielded r=.77 using the unequal-length Spearman-Brown coefficient. This 5-item questionnaire on managerial philosophy (attitudinal data) was considered to have attained acceptable reliability.

Description of the Data

Profile Summary

In general, the sample of this study was approximately equally distributed by gender with a model age between 35-44. Nearly twice as many males as females held a master´s degree with a plurality (41.3%) of those degrees obtained in the field of education. A plurality of respondents (37.7%) had taught adults for 6-10 years. The most frequently reported organizational size was 100-999 employees, and Theory Y was the most predominantly reported management philosophy.

The Hypothesis

The *t*-test for independent means was used to test the hypothesis that PALS scores of professional trainers were significantly different according to the status of their managerial philosophy (X or Y). A significant difference was detected in the distribution of the total PALS scores among groups differentiated by managerial philosophy. Using pooled variance, the *t* value obtained was $t=-3.06$; $p=.003$.

Because significance was reached on the test of hypothesis, seven factor scores were also tested for differences between managerial philosophy groups. Significant differences were detected for four of the PALS factors: Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, Climate Building, and Participation in the Learning Process. The Y oriented trainers scored higher in all remaining factors even though significance was not reached.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to contribute a greater understanding of the nature of adult teaching in specific settings that can lead to improvements in organization-wide Human Resource Development programs. One of the contributions this study provided was an awareness of the importance of a trainer´s philosophical orientation, his/her perceptions about learners, and his/her assumptions about learning style. Awareness of relationships among these elements will benefit HRD trainers and their efforts to effect dynamic HRD programs. This study achieved its purpose to provide clearer insights into the nature of specific learning settings for adults.

The information about the characteristics of trainers and their approach to training provided by this research provides clues for increasing the effectiveness of an organization´s human resource development programs and, hence, of its profitability. This research indicates that adults learn better under collaborative learning conditions. Business/industry can improve productively by employing those trainers most likely to establish those conditions in the learning setting. This study provides a profile of that effective trainer--he/she has a Theory Y-orientation to management and has had 16 or more years experience in teaching adults, much of which was obtained in a large organization.

The challenge to those of us desiring to meet the critical problem of developing effective HRD systems to meet the changing needs of today's society is less ambiguous. We know where our national trainers are in terms of philosophy and its impact on training and we know which philosophy is most widely used today. This understanding places us in a unique position as human resource developers to meet the challenge of the active, involving, and evolving process of training.

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THE COLLABORATIVE TEACHING-LEARNING MODE: HEALTH EDUCATION PROFESSORS AND ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES

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Abstract

This descriptive study utilizing survey research techniques investigated the degree to which health education professors adhere to and practice the principles of adult education. Significant differences were detected in the acceptance and practice of the collaborative technique by health education professors.

Introduction

Throughout the health education literature, the overall theme is one of advocating a positive, lifelong, individual, and behavioral change. What has not been evident is the learning principles to be utilized when working with the adult population in order to accomplish such change. Absent in the literature was evidence of acceptance that a different body of learners exists--thus, it seemed that the adult is somewhat a forgotten void in the health education quest (Deming, 1986). Though the expanding health education literature targets the adult as a learner, no mention was made as to how the adult learner can be better served within the learning context. Thus, a gap exists between theory and practice of health education for the adult learner. This study served as the first step in the exploration of adult education principles in the health education program arena in order to determine the extent of association found between the two disciplines.

Health education is in the forefront of lifelong learning and behavioral change for the adult individual. The health education instructor at the university level has a responsibility to establish herself/himself as an adult education practitioner. Adult education principles are important due to the fact that health education professors are not only teachers of adults; they produce research concerning the adult population and the advancement of lifelong, healthful living, and they produce health educators who will become utilizers of appropriate behaviors in teaching adults. The purpose of this study was to establish how well university health education instructors adhere to adult education principles.

Unlike the findings from most studies, previous research in the principles of adult education integrated into health education is not to be found. This study is seminal in its quest to understand the harmony between health and adult education. Both fields envision lifelong learning as an asset

Description of the Data

For this study, four null hypotheses were developed (a) to determine if there were dependent relationships among PALS scores for this sample and the normed scores established for PALS and (b) to ascertain if the predictive variables of gender, teaching strategy, and philosophy had any relationship to adherence to adult teaching principles as measured by the total PALS score.

The main hypothesis proposed that no difference would be found between the scores obtained on PALS from health education professors and the normative ($X=146$) scores established for the instrument. In this study, comparison of the total PALS score between health education professors and the normative score produced a significant difference ($Z=3.21; p=1.96$). Health education professors scored significantly lower on the PALS instrument ($X=140.080$) than the norm. The cross sectional sample along with its size ($N=203$) generate a strong assertion that health education professors as a group fall below the norm in terms of collaborative teaching style.

The second hypothesis dealing with espoused health educational philosophy offered enriching information about the educational intentions of health education professors. Categories offered as options were idealist, realist, and pragmatist. Each of these philosophies reflect the basis for a learning theory and the roots of practiced teaching style. Significant differences in the PALS scoring pattern of respondents were detected in relationship to membership in philosophical groups. Those holding a more realist point of view tended to show a more teacher-oriented approach to learning. Those respondents espousing the idealist point of view scored more toward the center of PALS scores, thus demonstrating a moderate approach between teacher-centered and learner-centered views of education. Those scoring high on PALS were those advocating a pragmatic, more humanistic belief of learning. These pragmatic respondents advocated a more learner-centered approach to the learning process; i.e, a more collaborative stance.

The philosophical question, as presented in this study, has not been addressed in previous research using PALS. However, Pearson (1981), in his work with business and industry found that respondents who advocated a more humanistic (Theory Y) approach to learning tended to score higher on PALS than those trainers advocating a behavioristic (Theory X) approach. A replication of his study was conducted by Franklin (1988) in her research done with a national sample of the American Society of Training and Development. She tested the PALS with this population to find an association between the philosophy of McGregor´s Theory Y and Theory X. The findings showed a significant relationship between high scores on PALS and the Theory Y orientation toward the trainees.

as well as a necessity of life. Thus, research into how the two fields can best blend will be an enrichment for both.

Statement of the Problem

The problem for this study was founded on the assumption that university health education professors do indeed instruct the adult population. Their interaction with the adult population can be through traditional college classroom instruction or community consultation, as well as in published research pertinent to the field. Thus, the process of adult education as a viable foundation for learning should be apparent in the teaching styles of health education professors.

Methodology

The basic premise of this study was to discover how well health education professors utilized the basic principles of adult education. The instrument used on order to measure acceptance of the adult education mode (collaborative style) was the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) developed by Gary Conti (1979). PALS is a 44-item summative scale based on principles in the adult education literature. It gives an indication of an instructor's preference for teaching behavior in an adult education setting. High scores on PALS reflect a learner-centered approach to the teaching learning transaction. Low scores on PALS denote a preference for the teacher-centered approach in which authority resides with the instructor.

Responses were solicited from 400 practicing health education professors, employed in universities and colleges, who taught health education courses at the university level. The subjects were selected randomly from universities throughout the United States. Subjects were selected from the Eta Sigma Gamma National Directory of College and University Health Education Programs and Faculties. The returned instruments numbered 218 (54.5%) of which 15 were unusable. Thus, the final sample for the analysis consisted of 203 respondents, representing a 50% usable return rate.

The sample was described according to the demographic variables of gender, highest degree held, academic rank, classification level of students being instructed, and major area of study for the student population being instructed. In general, the sample in this study was predominantly male, held a doctoral degree and the rank of associate or full professor. They taught both graduate and undergraduate students from a variety of disciplines.

The third hypothesis dealt with the concept of teaching strategy. Respondents were offered a choice of twenty different teaching strategies which they might employ during the teaching-learning process. Respondents were asked to chose the one strategy from the list which most accurately described their individual preference. The findings of this study were that the teaching strategy chosen by the health education professor yielded significant differences in the scoring pattern for PALS. Those respondents adopting a more teacher-centered strategy (lecture and testing) scored lower on the total PALS score. Those respondents reflecting a more collaborative oriented strategy scored closer toward the norm on PALS. No respondents chose the learner-centered strategy of contracting as their favored strategy.

Conclusions

Some conclusions to be drawn from this study provide a foundation for future investigation into the integration of both health education and adult education:

1. Significant differences in the total scores on PALS and those of health education professors were evident. This is an indication of the lack of both understanding and training as well as application for health educators in the field of adult education. The conclusion to be drawn is that though health education professors advocate learning as a lifelong goal, a gap does indeed exist in the knowledge base for health education professors in relation to the adult as a learner and adult education principles. Health education professors are the leaders in terms of research and delivery of new techniques that will enable the advancement of theoritical concepts dealing with lifelong approaches to healthful living. Viewing the adult as a resource to be respected and valued in terms of lifelong learning involves the utilization of adult education skills.
2. Significant differences were found among health professors in regard to espoused philosophy. Those advocating a realistic view scored lower on the PALS ($X=129.18$) than those with a more pragmatic, humanistic view ($X=146.8$). While the idealist and pragmatist consider the learner as an active, dynamic participant in the learning relationship, the realist considers the learner to be a passive recipient of prescribed information: this is contrary to the collaborative mode and adult education in general. If health education wants to move forward in the information age, that development must include adult education training and understanding of how adults learn and change. The movement toward adult education training might begin in the adaptation of philosophical constructs held by health education professors.
3. Significant differences were found in the PALS scoring patterns of instructors adopting varied teaching strategies.

Those advocating a teaching strategy contrary to the collaborative mode scored lower on their total PALS relationship. Training is needed to move health education professors from lecturing and other limited instructional modes into a more learner-centered involvement with students. Their reflection of philosophy in chosen teaching strategy presents the view that those professors of a more realistic philosophy prefer the lecture, testing, and audio visual approach to learning. While these strategies often are important and useful for special purposes, a greater variety of methods needs to be utilized when instructing the adult learner.

Woven within the tapestry of health education theory, hints and premises of adult education principles can be found. However, the literature is empty of any research aimed at establishing adult education principles as a utility to be understood and practiced. Clark (1980) proposes one reason for the absence of adult education principles in health education: "because the potential for achieving health related objectives--that is, to have an impact on a learner's health knowledge and practice--has been insufficiently documented by adult educators and insufficiently communicated to health professionals" (p. 63). The seminal nature of this study provides at least one starting point toward documentation.

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Identifying Determinants of Commitment to Teaching and Turnover Behavior

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Abstract: The purpose of this investigation was to identify determinants of commitment to teaching and the resulting impact on turnover behavior. Findings suggest that commitment to teaching is significantly related to job expectations, one's commitment propensity and experienced meaningfulness of the job. Commitment had a negative relationship to one's intent to leave, which was related to turnover.

Problem Statement

Retention of teachers in the public schools is an issue of increasing concern to teacher educators, administrators, and the public in general. Several trends contribute to this problem. Little work has been done in any cumulative fashion to identify factors associated with teacher retention. The purpose of this investigation was to identify determinants of one's commitment to teaching and the resulting impact on turnover behavior. If these factors can be identified, suggestions may be offered to help continuing education professionals plan and conduct educational experiences that assist in career development and choice.

Objectives

To guide the study, the following objectives are established:

1. To identify variables impacting on commitment to teaching.
2. To determine which variables contribute most to commitment to teaching.
3. Determine the relationship between commitment to teaching and turnover behavior.

Review of the Literature/Theoretical Framework

The framework which lends itself to studying the development of commitment and its impact on turnover is the model proposed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979). Steers (1977), building on previous research, constructed a model illustrating both the antecedents to and outcomes of organizational commitment. The three categories of antecedent variables were personal characteristics, job characteristics, and the nature and quality of an employees' work experience. Steers indicates that a highly committed employee should be a highly productive one. In addition, one's intent to remain in an organization should be positively associated with the level of organizational commitment. Steers (1977), in testing his model, found that organizational commitment was significantly related to desire to remain, intent to remain, attendance, and turnover.

Since the Steer's study, Mowday et al. (1979) have expanded on this model by suggesting that even though prior research has provided rich understanding of the correlates of commitment, little has been done to attempt to understand the processes through which commitment develops. They indicate, that as an individual internalizes the organization's goals and values, psychological and behavioral attachment to organizations results. They suggest that to understand commitment, three stages need to be understood: The pre-entry stage, early employment period work experiences, and the middle/late career stage. At the pre-employment stage, individuals enter the profession with varying levels of "propensity to become committed." This is influenced by personal characteristics, job/role expectations, and circumstances related to one's decision to enter the profession. During the second stage, or early employment period, it is argued that as one's length of service unfolds, commitment develops due to a variety of work experiences. Such experience included type of supervision experiences and participation in decision making which lead to one's sense of responsibility and, consequently, to an increase in one's commitment. Also, included in this stage is the notion of job alternative availability. The implication is that when one has various job alternatives, he/she may not feel as positive toward the current job.

In keeping with a suggestion made by Pierce and Dunham (in press), an additional variable is added to the model for investigation in this study. They argue that initial work experiences may lead to experienced meaningfulness in one's work/role which will enhance commitment. From exchange theory, it is suggested by Steers (1977) that employees who feel that the job is making use of valued skills and abilities are likely to engage in exchange with the job/organization and give greater commitment in return.

The primary purpose of this investigation, then, was to test the precursors to one's commitment to teaching as suggested by the modified model. In addition, important consequences of commitment will be examined through examining relationships between commitment, behavioral intentions, and resulting turnover (or retention). The study will examine subjects through the pre-employment and early employment periods.

Method

The entire population of teachers beginning their first year of teaching and those who are beginning their second, third, and fourth year in the vocational subject matter areas in public secondary educational institutions in Wisconsin, were selected for inclusion in this study. The teachers in the various vocational areas were identified through examination of employment records at the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. These vocational education areas will include home economics education (n=33), vocational agricultural education (n=62), marketing and distributive education (n=20), business and office occupations education (n=88), and industrial education (n=5). The study was conducted prior to and including the 1986-87 school year.

The first data collection made prior to beginning the school year measured the set of job/role expectations the individual brings to teaching, propensity toward commitment to teaching, several individual differences, and basic demographic data. A second questionnaire was administered in March, 1987 which measured various job and work experience variables, experienced responsibility and meaningfulness of the job, experienced commitment, and a set of behavioral intentions pertaining to turnover. Finally, at the end of the school year, individuals were contacted to determine if they had left teaching. The total number of responses was 148 yielding a 72 percent response rate. A non-respondent follow-up yielded no significant differences from the respondents on selected variables.

Results

A path-analysis approach with ordinary least-squares regression analysis was used to examine the unique contribution of antecedent variables and interactions to criterion variables identified in the model. In the first analysis commitment propensity was regressed on all the preceding variables as identified in the model. Secondly, commitment to teaching was regressed on all the immediate antecedent variables. It should be noted that employability was hypothesized to moderate the association between commitment propensity, experienced responsibility, and experienced meaningfulness of the job. To accomplish this interaction, terms calculated as the product of employability with these three variables were added to the analysis. A third analysis involved regressing behavioral intention on commitment to teaching. A final analysis involved using a point-biserial correlation to determine the relationship between behavioral intent and actual turnover. The significant predictors of commitment propensity were job/role expectations (b = .28) and external job choice factors (b = .20). Significant predictors of commitment were job/role expectations (b = .34), commitment propensity (b = 6.32), and meaningfulness of the job (b = .29). Commitment had a significant direct effect on one's intent to stay or leave (b = .51). Behavioral intent was a significant path to turnover behavior (b = .27). Decomposition of the effects revealed that job/role expectations is a major variable throughout the model.

Conclusions/Implications

The primary purpose of this study was to study the major features of the commitment model proposed by Pierce and Dunham (in press). In addition, an additional variable, experienced meaningfulness of the job was placed in the model as suggested. In general, the results were supportive of the model even though some non-significant predictors were identified.

The analyses were consistent with the concept that job/role expectations and external job choice factors lead to commitment propensity, commitment, behavioral intent, and finally to turnover or retention. Also leading to commitment is the meaningfulness of the job. Self-esteem, locus of control, job choice factors, and experienced responsibility on the job were not related to the primary variables of interests in this study.

The interaction of employability with other primary variables was not significant in predicting one's commitment. The lack of contribution to the model by employability as a moderator variable is consistent with previous findings (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Miller, Katerburg, & Hulin, 1979).

The job/role expectancy variable did emerge as a precursor to commitment. It is important to realize that met expectations do appear to be associated with one's psychological attachment to a career, and, consequently, whether one stays in or leaves that career. It seems reasonable to conclude that greater knowledge about teaching as a career is likely to result in expectations that are more consistent with what one subsequently experiences. Through such a dissonance reduction, one is more likely to be committed to his/her career choice.

Experienced meaningfulness, as suggested by Pierce and Dunham (in press), was identified as a significant predictor of commitments to teaching. Developmentally, it appears that deviation of meaning from a career leads one to become committed to it.

Experience levels had no association with any primary analysis of the model. All of the teachers regardless of years of experience seem to be engaged in a similar process of adjustment and exploration in teaching as a career. An important recommendation is further examination of differential relationships due to within-year differences of stayers and leavers that might yield important findings in each of the first four years of experience.

Commitment to teaching did well as a predictor of intent to stay or leave teaching. The negative coefficient (b = .51) indicates that as commitment increases, one's intent to leave decreases. This suggests that psychological attachments to a career make separation from it more difficult. Intent to say or leave, then, appears as a function of goal and value agreement, behavioral and time investment, and desire to retain membership. An unexpected finding was the small but significant relationship between external job choice factors and commitment propensity (b = .21) and consequent weak indirect effect on commitment (.07). This suggests that while individuals may have entered their career because they feel they had no other choice and were partially inclined to commit on this basis, their commitment became more an outcome of meaningfulness of the job and not expectations.

Caution should be exercised in drawing causal conclusions from these data. Although they certainly support much of the model, causal linkages are not established. However, the degree of consistency between the findings of the present study and the preexisting model upon which the current study is based, lends credence to supporting possible causal chains from individual expectations, through commitment propensity, along with meaningfulness of the job and employability, to increase commitment, through intention, and, finally, to turnover/retention. Even though these chains can be suggested, each linkage accounts for less than half of the variance in successive dependent variables of each chain.

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TWENTY VOICES - REFLECTIONS ON PURSUING AN EXTERNAL BACCALAUREATE DEGREE

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ABSTRACT

Students who completed degrees through a distance education program shared certain learning style characteristics which made barriers to completion seem less intense. The most important of these characteristics appeared to be a preference for independence and control which helped students to set their own goals, structure their learning and provide their own motivation and discipline.

INTRODUCTION

Attrition in external degree programs remains of the most critical problems facing those who seek to provide access to higher education to those who are unable to pursue traditional degree programs. (Coldeway, 1988). Countless studies have focused on the student profile, the student's reasons for dropout and institutional factors related to attrition. (Cookston, 1988) Few studies have focused on the student and his/her perception of the environment in which external baccalaureate study is pursued.

As part of a larger study focusing on preferred learning styles and perceived barriers to completion of external baccalaureate degrees (Coggins, 1988, Graff and Coggins, 1988) twenty interviews were conducted with external degree graduates and non-completers. The additional qualitative data were collected to: (1) provide a context for understanding the nature of the findings from the quantitative data analyses; (2) contribute additional insights into learning style preferences not readily available from existing instrumentation; and (3) identify additional variables to guide research to further explain and predict dropout in external degree programs. The focus of this paper is the presentation of the findings relative to this latter purpose.

METHODOLOGY

The study utilized a stratified random sample of 20 interviewees selected from the pool of 200 randomly selected subjects participating in the larger study. An equal number of completers and non-completers were selected with perception of barriers (either high or low) in pursuing an external degree providing additional stratification. Barriers were defined according to Cross (1981) and included situational, dispositional, institutional barriers as well as an additional category of barriers associated with pursuing an external degree.

An open-ended interview schedule was developed consisting of questions which focused on the experience of pursuing a degree at a distance. The interviews, which were conducted via the telephone and took between one and two hours, focused on: decision making related to re-entering school; perceived rewards; impact on the student's life; factors which enhanced and impeded progress; and preferred conditions and modes of learning. In addition, students were asked to reflect on the kinds of problems a friend might have in the program and what recommendations they would have for their friend as they began their external degree. Constant-comparative methods were used to analyze these data.

FINDINGS

What evolved from the analyses of these qualitative data were a number of distinct themes which served to highlight key variables in the successful completion of these external degrees as identified by completers and non-completers. These themes related to: motivation, including source(s), sustainers and detractors and changeable levels during study; locus of control, including assertiveness, self-discipline and self-sufficiency; resources, including time, advocates, local assistance and library materials; and appropriateness of independent study method including availability and convenience of communication with others, congruence with learning style and flexibility.

Motivation

One finding common to completers and non-completers alike was their motivation for pursuing their degree - the rewards for completing the degree were noted as vocational purposes and personal satisfaction. Being a step closer to their goal of completing a baccalaureate degree, e.g. completing a course, provided a continuing source of motivation noted by degree completers. Personal qualities of intense desire, pride, determination and liking a challenge were also noted as motivators by this group. An additional source of motivation for the majority of those interviewed was the encouragement provided by family members. Considerably more completers however noted that their parents had wanted them to finish college and that these expectations had influenced their own interest in education. Completers also appeared to have a wider base of support as they more often mentioned encouragement from friends and instructors as well.

Of particular interest was the fact that those who did not finish their degrees were less likely to describe the intensity of their motivation, but rather often described those factors which caused their motivation to diminish. For some, their enthusiasm waned over time. For others, course related difficulties affected their motivation. For example, one respondent was motivated by the illusion she was doing well in the course. When she received feedback to the contrary from her instructor, she became very discouraged. Another commented she was counselled into a mathematics course as her first class and mathematics had always been her downfall. In retrospect she wished she had been more assertive and had selected a course more to her liking. Additional course-related variables which appeared to impact motivation included the provision of feedback and educational materials from instructors. When feedback was limited or course materials did not arrive 'on time' non-completers were easily discouraged and dropped out of courses and/or the degree program.

Locus of Control

Inbedded in almost all interviews was a discussion of locus of control. Reflecting on advice they would give to students just beginning an external degree program, completers stressed that students must ask for help, even demand it at times. This assertiveness was exemplified by a student who noted "You must demand what you need--after all you are paying for it ..." and the student mentioned earlier who suggested she should have ignored the counsellor's advice and taken a course other than math, given her math anxiety.

Self-discpline was continually mentioned throughout the interviews. Non-completers, especially those with high barriers, expressed greater dependency upon instructors to supply them with guidance, structure, discipline and encouragement. Many had difficulty maintaining their own motivation and working independently when they were away from campus.

Completers also stressed self-sufficiency, seeking out resources on one's own. Examples included getting help from a local math teacher during a difficult section of the course and joining appropriate support groups.

Overall, those who successfully completed external degrees were those who took control over their own learning; controlling pace, structure, self-discipline and instructors as necessary.

Appropriateness of Independent Study

Nearly all respondents had chosen the external degree program over other alternatives because it allowed them to schedule study around their jobs and family responsibilities, required little or no commuting and provided flexibility. Some had selected the program as there was no conveniently located educational institution. Completers, however, were not likely to note that they selected the alternative because it allowed them to take more credits and to complete their degree in a shorter period of time.

With the exception of completers who had a low perception of barriers, all other respondents reported difficulty with some coursework which seemingly became more difficult when pursued at a distance, and a desire for more communications with instructors. In addition to the problems with limited communications with instructors, the difficulties associated with this limited contact, e.g. necessity of repeated phone calls, no responses, or inadequate responses to questions, were also mentioned frequently. Communications difficulties were directly attributable to waning motivation and difficulty with self-pacing.

Contrary to the statistical data from the larger study (Coggins, 1988) which indicated that with the exception of expectancy there were no significant differences in the learning styles of completers and non-completers as measured by Canfield's Learning Style Inventory (Canfield, 1980), the interview data indicated that completers had learning styles better suited to distance education. These learners did not need as much contact with their instructors or peers. In Addition, they were goal oriented, setting their own goals, establishing a structure for their accomplishment and working on them independently. Further, they seemed confident in their ability and described themselves very positively. They spoke of being determined learners who were independent, self-motivated, efficient, self-disciplined and assertive.

Parallel to earlier statistical findings no other differences in learning style appeared to be evident other than differences in conditions for learning described above and expectancy, as related to personal academic competence.

DISCUSSION

The analysis of the interview data perhaps raised more questions than it answered. While providing a context for understanding the qualitative data collected in the larger study, the interview data appears to contradict the learning style data assessed through the Canfield Learning Style Inventory. More specifically, statistical analyses reported elsewhere (Coggins, 1988) indicate no significant differences between the learning styles of completers and non-completers, with the exception of the student's general expectancy of success or failure in academic situations. Whereas analysis of interview data indicates preference for instructor affiliation, goal setting, and independence appear to be characteristics of completers of external degree programs. Once again, the reliability and validity of learning style assessment tools may be called into question, particularly with groups that have been found to be somewhat homogeneous in terms of cognitive personality style (Moore, 1976).

As the respondents described the environment in which they lived and learned, it appeared that all learners faced a variety of barriers, with some perceiving these barriers as more intense than others. What distinguished the completers from non-completers was the extent to which internal motivation and locus of control enabled them to overcome these barriers. In addition, high motivation, assertiveness, high self esteem and internal locus of control appear to have helped students to view barriers less intensely.

These limited data suggest the need for additional research into participation and dropout using theoretical frameworks which focus on internal psychological variables, especially motivation, external environmental variables, such as situational barriers and the interaction among and between these variables, especially "goodness of fit" within learner and between learner and his/her teaching/learning environment. Boshier's (1973) Model of Adult Education Participation and Dropout is one model which appears worthy of further investigation as distance education strives to deal with the major problem of persistence.

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THE COLLABORATIVE MODE,
INSTRUCTOR CHARACTERISTICS,
AND STUDENT RETENTION

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Abstract: In an attempt to alleviate the problem of adult student attrition at the community college, this study explores the relationship between student retention in credit classes and instructor characteristics, particularly the instructor's degree of support for the collaborative learning mode.

Statement of the problem

Student attrition is one of the most significant problems in the field of adult education and has been so for many years. Higher education institutions in the 1980s are facing a period of potential decline in student enrollment due to changing demographics. Students who drop out can no longer be easily replaced. There is clear evidence that retention rates are lower in community colleges than they are in senior institutions. Reducing attrition has implications for the use of scant, diminishing resources, the effectiveness of the group learning situation, curriculum development, program evaluation and other theoretical issues.

The vast majority of previous adult student retention research since Verner and Davis's (1964) review has centered around student and institutional factors promoting retention. These studies have limited use for the classroom instructor attempting to retain students. Information on who is likely to drop out is equivocal at best and useless without a plan of action. Why a student drops out is difficult to validate and also is of limited value without a plan of corrective action. What one can to to reduce attrition in the classroom is the most valuable information for the instructor.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between instructor characteristics and adult student retention in the community college. Based on inferences from the literature and because of this writer's belief that the worth of an individual student is paramount in the success of a class, this study examines the instructor's degree of support for the collaborative learning mode. This concept along with selected demographic characteristics of instructors are studied to determine their effect on student retention.

Methodology

Selected instructors and their 100-level and above credit classes in two northern Illinois community colleges, College of DuPage and Triton College, served as the sample for this study. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), designed by Gary Conti in 1979, was used to measure the 253 instructors' support for the collaborative learning mode, the mode that shares the responsibility for the class between the teacher and the learner.

PALS is used to assess teaching style by asking the respondents to indicate the frequency with which they practice the actions described in the items. A high score indicates a preference for a learner-centered approach, while a low score indicates a preference for the teacher-centered approach to the teaching/learning transaction. This instrument is a 44-item instrument that is a summative rating scale using a modified Likert scale yielding a total score and seven sub-scores, each focusing on a particular facet of the whole. The sub-scores are Learner-Centered Activities, Personalizing Instruction, Relating to Experience, Assessing Student Needs, Climate Building, Participation in the Learning Process, and Flexibility for Personal Development.

Selected demographic characteristics were also examined for possible relationships. The demographic data studied were as follows: the school at which the instructor taught, the age of the instructor, the gender of the instructor, teaching status of the instructor (full-time or part-time), the instructor's total years of teaching experience, the instructor's years of adult education teaching experience, the number of adult education courses taken by the instructor, and the number of staff development sessions attended by the instructor.

Retention was measured in three ways: from the 10th day until midterm, from midterm until the end of the class, and from the 10th day until the end of the class. The 10th day was chosen as the starting point to eliminate the effect of late registration and early scheduling changes. The data was gathered through instructor questionnaires and college records. Regression analysis techniques were used to analyze the data. A simple correlation was done between the variables using the appropriate test, either Pearson product moment correlation test, _t_-test or one-way analysis of variance to test the 51 hypotheses centered around the following research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between the instructor's total score on PALS and the three measures of retention?
2. Is there any relationship between the instructor's sub-scores on PALS and the three measures of retention?
3. Is there any relationship between the instructor's demographic data and the three measures of retention?

An alpha level of .05 was set for rejection of the null hypotheses.

Description of the data

The results indicate that instructors who support the concept of strong teacher control retain significantly more adult students in the first half of the class, while instructors who support the concept of more learner control retain more students in the last half of the class.

Retention in the first half of the class was related significantly to lower total scores on PALS indicating a belief in relatively strong teacher control. Retention in the second half of the class was significantly related to higher total scores on PALS indicating a belief in increased learner control. No significant relationship was found between the total scores on PALS and retention over the entire length of the class.

In general the analysis of the sub-scores mirrors the results of the total scores. All but one of the seven sub-scores, Participation in the Learning Process, were negatively related to retention in the first half of the class. Two were significant; Learner-Centered Activities, which measures an instructor's degree of support for comparing students to outside standards, and Flexibility for Personal Development, which measures an instructor's degree of support for adjusting the learning environment and curricular content to meet the unique needs of the students.

All of the seven sub-scores were positively related to retention in the second half of the class. Three of them were related significantly; Relating to Experience, which measures an instructor's degree of support for encouraging students to relate their new learning to past experience, Assessing Student Needs, which measures an instructor's degree of support for finding out what the student wants and needs to know, and Flexibility for Personal Development, which measures an instructor's degree of support for adjusting the learning environment and curricular content to the unique needs of the learner.

All but one of the sub-scores, Learner-Centered Activities, were related positively to retention over the entire length of the class. Only one, Participation in the Learning Process, which measures an instructor's degree of support for allowing students to determine topics to be covered in the class, was significant. This was the only variable measured that had a significant relationship to retention over the entire length of the class.

Two sub-scores, Personalizing Instruction, which measures an instructor's degree of support for meeting the unique learning needs of the student, and Climate Building, which measures an instructor's degree of support for setting a friendly climate in the classroom, were not significant with regard to any measure of student retention.

With regard to the demographic data studied, none of these items were significantly related to student retention over the entire length of the class.

Only two were significantly related to retention in the first half of the class, the school at which the instructor taught and the number of staff development sessions attended. Different procedures for dropping inactive students could account for the significance of the school attended. The opposite significant relationship occurs in the second half of the course. The instructors who attend a greater number of staff development session retain significantly fewer students in the first half of the class.

In the second half of the class five items were significantly related to student retention: school at which the instructor taught, age of the instructor, full or part-time teaching status, formal education of the instructor, and the number of staff development sessions attended by the instructor. The significance of the school at which the instructor taught was the opposite of the results in the first half of the class and was explained in the above paragraph. Older instructors retained significantly more students than younger instructors. Full-time instructors also retained significantly more students than part-time instructors. Instructors with only high school diplomas retained more students than those with master's degrees. This was the only significant relationship with regard to the education of the instructor. Instructors who attended more staff development sessions retained significantly more students. No significant relationship was found with any measure of retention and the instructor's gender, the instructor's total teaching experience or adult education teaching experience.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the three research questions cited above.

1. Is there any relationship between the total scores on PALS and any of the three measures of retention?

Teacher behavior that remains the same in terms of adherence to or divergence from the collaborative mode over the entire length of the class is not conducive to student retention. In the first half of the class, more students remain in classes where the instructor is teacher-centered giving new students the assurance of what to expect, definable standards, and expecting little in terms of innovations from the student.

After the student has successfully completed the first half of the class, the student is more open to accepting a greater degree of responsibility for the content and activities of the course. During this half of the class, more students are retained by giving them a greater degree of input for the rest of the course.

Throughout the class, students evolve and one type of teacher behavior for the entire length of the class is not shown to be significantly related to retention.

2. Is there any relationship between the sub-scores on PALS and any of the three measures of retention?

The sub-scores on PALS follow the same pattern as the total scores with the following exceptions. Though never significant, Personalizing Instruction is always positive. Participation in the Learning Process is also only positive, and is the only variable in the study that is significant with total retention over the entire length of the class. Allowing the student to contribute to the topics of discussion and types of activities in the class seems to increase student retention over the entire length of the class.

Except for these, the sub-scores follow the same pattern as the total scores, indicating that student retention is best fostered by adopting a changing behavior pattern of the instructor with regard to the collaborative mode.

3. Is there any relationship between the demographic characteristics measured and any of the three measures of retention?

Over the entire length of the class, the demographic characteristics of the instructor make no significant difference to student retention. The student in the second half of the course seems to be more sensitive to instructor characteristics. More demographic characteristics were significantly related to student retention at this time. Instructors need to be aware that student retention is affected by them even after the first couple of class sessions.

In conclusion, to retain the maximum number of adult students, teacher behavior must be modified with regard to the collaborative mode as the class proceeds. Instructor's demographic characteristics may be more important in the second half of the course, so care should be taken after midterm to continue to retain students. This study demonstrates that the instructor can make a difference in adult student retention in credit classes in the community college.

This study is significant for it is one of the few that demonstrates that classroom instructors can make a difference in student retention. It also provides instructors with suggestions for specific strategies that may play a part in increasing retention in their classes.

1. In the beginning of the class, the instructor should adopt the practices in the teacher-centered mode to give the adult student clear guidelines, definable standards and limited responsibility for classroom practices and curriculum.
2. In the second half of the class, the instructor should move toward adopting the practices in the learner-centered mode to give the adult student more chance to give input into the classroom practices and curriculum.

Some more specific guidelines to aid retention in the classroom are indicated by significant sub-score relationships and are as follows:

1. Allow student input about the topics to be covered in class throughout the course.
2. Use standardized testing measures in the first half of the class.
3. Relate a student's past experience to present learning needs in the second half of the class.
4. Find out what a student wants and needs to know about the course material in the second half of the class.
5. Do not adjust the learning environment and curricular content to fit the needs of the learner in the first half of the class, but do so in the second half of the class.

These guidelines are an attempt to assist the instructor of adult students in the community college to take some control over student retention in the classroom.

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CURRENT APPROACHES TO USING COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES FOR DELIVERING ADULT CONTINUING/PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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Abstract: Results from a survey of 49 postsecondary educational institutions are discussed focusing on (1) current practices in the use of communications technologies for delivering continuing/professional education and the difficulties encountered in their use, (2) techniques employed to integrate video-based instruction, and (3) the provision of student support with media-based instruction.

In an effort to respond to the demand for adult continuing/ professional education, many postsecondary educational institutions have begun to use communications technologies to reach learners who cannot attend traditional on-campus classes. The adoption of these technologies for delivering off-campus instruction, however, is a fairly recent phenomenon and is still at an experimental stage. For institutions wishing to adopt them, there is a dearth of information on current practices in the use of new technologies for delivering instruction, the difficulties encountered in their use, and techniques employed by institutions to integrate the delivery medium with the distance education system.

Therefore, in order to obtain such information, a survey was conducted of post secondary educational institutions in the United States that use communications technologies to deliver off-campus continuing or professional education. The survey provided information on three main areas:

I. Current practices in the use of communications technologies, specifically a) the type of media/technologies currently being used to reach off-campus learners, b) the function of different media in the delivery of instruction, and c) problems related to using television technologies for off-campus instruction.
II. Techniques employed to integrate television programs.
III. Student support services provided by institutions, and the effectiveness of these services.

METHODOLOGY

The survey instrument was mailed to a sample of 70 postsecondary educational programs in the United States which deliver off-campus adult continuing education and/or professional continuing education. The programs selected were the same 70 programs surveyed by Lewis (1983).

The seventy programs were classified under three categories: two-year colleges (14), four-year colleges (28), and consortia (28). Consortia included broadcast facilities, professional associations, non-profit organizations, and government agencies. The programs satisfied the following criteria: 1. delivered adult continuing education and/or professional continuing education to off-campus students, 2. used print and communications technologies to deliver instruction, and 3. provided student support services.

The survey instrument was mailed to the director or person responsible for the program. By survey closeout, 70% of a total of 70 institutions (12 two-year colleges, 22 four-year colleges, and 15 consortia) had returned a completed questionnaire. The responses were analyzed using the SPSSx package and data are reported using the overall response rates in percentages and, where pertinent, crosstabulations by the three institution types are reported.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

I. Current Practices in the Use of Communications Technologies to Deliver Off-Campus Instruction

a) The Type of Media/Technologies Currently Used to Reach Off-campus Learners. One of the most salient findings of this survey is that a majority of programs were using television (76%) and videocassettes (71%) more often than any other media to deliver instruction to off-campus learners. An analysis of television technologies used indicates that a majority use open-broadcast (76%) and cable (one-way) television (68%). Both these television technologies are non-interactive, i.e., permit communication only in one direction, but are capable of reaching the learners in their own homes.

Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS) which is a television relay of an on-campus lecture was used by (41%) of the institutions. This technology is usually used in an interactive mode by having viewers call in to interact with the instructor during the presentation. However, off-campus students have to be present at a receiving site to participate in the lecture.

Satellite delivery with telephone feedback during the presentation was used as much as satellite television with only one-way video (32% to 35%). It is more advantageous to the distance learner if satellite delivery is used in an interactive mode, because it provides an opportunity for interaction with the instructor. Few institutions used other interactive technologies such as cable television with telephone feedback during program (22%) and point-to-point microwave (30%).

Correspondence texts, a primary medium for delivering off-campus instruction a decade ago, were used less (49%) than television (76%) and videocassettes (71%). Audiocassettes (47%) were used almost as much as correspondence texts (49%). Teleconferencing (which includes both audioconferencing and videoconferencing) is emerging as a means of delivering distance education (45%). This technology has a great advantage in being able to share expert teaching with learners spread across vast distances, although it has the disadvantage of not being able to reach learners in their own homes. Learners have to be present at a receiving site in order to participate in a teleconference.

Computers, an emerging instructional technology in on-campus instruction, are not being used to a great extent (39%) to deliver off-campus instruction, probably because of the very high cost of the medium and problems related to student access. Radio (22%) emerged as the least used medium.

There was no major difference between the three institution types in the use of media for the delivery of instruction. It was observed that the two-year colleges in the sample were using the electronic media much more than the four-year colleges (television 100%:68%, videocassettes 92%:59%, and computers 50%:27%) to deliver distance instruction. More four-year colleges, on the other hand, made use of correspondence texts (59%:41%) and teleconferencing (59%:41%).

Institutions were asked to express their opinions on whether distance learners were more likely to complete courses which had a pre-produced television component. Responses indicate that only about a third felt that it contributed toward the completion of a course. About two-fifths indicated that they could not make a judgement, and a very small percentage (12%) reported that television did not contribute toward course completion rates. It can be concluded that although television was perceived as a popular and effective medium, its contribution toward course completion rates is still undetermined by a fairly large number of institutions. One respondent pointed out that distance learners will complete more course work with ITFS or closed circuit interactive television than open-broadcast one-way deliveries.

The general picture that emerges about the use of television technologies in the future is that several institutions that are not using them now will be using them in the future to deliver distance instruction. More two-year colleges than four-year colleges felt that the new technologies were effective in delivering instruction.

Future plans to improve the delivery system and student support services indicate that the upgrading of equipment and facilities was considered to be of primary importance. On the whole, more institutions mentioned the improvement of the delivery system by the adoption or expansion of communications technologies (such as ITFS adoption or improvement, and live interaction through sophisticated technologies), than mentioned the improvement of student support services.

b) The Functions of Different Media. Results indicate that next to being a major course content delivery medium (71%), television was used more as a reinforcing and enriching medium (31%) than as a medium which supplemented material not covered in texts (14%). Although institutions were using interactive technologies to a certain degree, the dominant delivery technology was one-way television.

Videocassettes were used mainly to record television broadcasts (57%). Few (14%) reported that they used videocassettes primarily designed to take advantage of the cassette medium (for example, designed with activities such as directing students at the end of sequences to stop and take notes on, or discuss, what they have seen and heard). It can be inferred that a majority of those who use videocassettes do not produce their own, and therefore were not able to take advantage of the unique characteristics of the cassette medium.

Audiocassettes were primarily used to provide supplementary or resource material (70%) and to enrich print and other media (60%). Very few used them for student feedback or counseling purposes, or for audio reviews of television programs.

A majority (86%) of institutions that use computers cited them as being useful in the performance of administrative functions such as keeping student records. Computers were considered more useful in the provision of student support services such as grading assignments and tests (83%), and providing feedback (74%) than for computer assisted instruction (70%).

c) Problems Related to Using Television Technologies for Off-Campus Instruction. Production and distribution costs (37%), faculty resistance to television instruction (30%), and lack of institutional support for television instruction (28%) were perceived as major obstacles to the use of television for off-campus instruction. Most of the obstacles mentioned were those experienced by institutions delivering the instruction, seen from an institutional standpoint, rather than problems experienced by students.

One institution pointed out that after seven years of experience, they have found that the technologies are far less troublesome than the intra-institutional, political and bureaucratic integration of the program. This is because an alternative delivery system affects all other offices and procedures at the institution. Another institution remarked that there is no campus policy and no interest in serving distance learners except where industry has demanded and paid for it. The second comment highlights a very crucial issue that might have an impact on distance education programs in the future--the influence of industry in the decision of a campus to provide education to off-campus learners.

II. Techniques Employed to Integrate Television Programs

Tests, quizzes and assignments (32%) and study guides (26%) were the two main techniques used by institutions to integrate television programs with textual and other media in distance education courses. Two types of supplementary materials considered very effective in helping students learn from television programs were pre-broadcast notes preparing students for what they will see in the television program and follow-up exercises after viewing.

Exercises requiring student responses during transmission were considered a very effective integration technique, but this technique can be used effectively only if the television program is available in recorded form. Another effective technique cited was screen presentation of the correct answer and discussion. This technique, however, has to be built into the television script, or used by an instructor in Tutored Video Instruction (TVI). Although a variety of techniques was employed by institutions to integrate the television component, only a small percentage of institutions that use television for instruction indicated employing integration techniques.

III. Student Support Services Provided by Institutions

In a distance learning system, the delivery media cannot by themselves provide for learner needs such as direction, guidance, clarification, and verification of results. This is especially so if the delivery medium is non-interactive as in open-broadcast television. In such an instance, the delivery medium needs to be accompanied by support and follow-up activities. The effective integration of student support services, the delivery media, and the learning materials is of prime importance in a distance learning system.

Student support services provided by a majority of institutions were: telephone office-hours for faculty teaching the course (86%), study guides (75%), individualized feedback from faculty (75%), and calls initiated by faculty (70%). A substantial proportion indicated providing services such as student access to public or college libraries (66%) and face-to-face academic advising (59%).

Student support considered very helpful by institutions using video-based instruction, fall into four categories: (a) guidelines for studying--the study guide, (b) interaction--telephone office hours for faculty, and telephone calls initiated by faculty, (c) feedback-- individualized feedback from faculty and computerized feedback, and (d) access to library resources. These four kinds of support present means by which video-based instruction can be integrated into a distance teaching system.

Study centers off-campus were provided by (41%) of the institutions surveyed. The types of services provided at study centers were student access to media equipment (videocassette players) and library facilities, rather than arrangements for student-tutor interaction or student-student interaction. Whereas off-campus learning centers are an excellent means of providing student support in a distance teaching system, because they localize the instruction and provide students with access to learning facilities, the cost of maintaining them can be a major burden to an institution providing such a service.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The survey has pointed out that the technologies currently used most often to deliver off-campus instruction are non-interactive open-broadcast and cable deliveries, and videocassette recordings. These three types will be the dominant delivery technologies in the near future. Where the delivery technologies are non-interactive, as in the first two types, provision should be made for interaction among the off-campus learner, the instructor and the instructional materials by employing support services. Therefore, instructional strategies for helping students learn from the medium and student support services play a crucial role in the integration of these technologies into distance education systems.

The survey identified four helpful support services: the study guide, communication with faculty, feedback and access to library resources. However, guidelines are urgently needed for the effective use of these services. This is especially important in view of the fact that several institutions that use television for instruction are not convinced that a pre-produced television component contributes toward course completion rates.

Since videocassettes will be one of the major delivery mediums of the future, it is necessary to identify techniques that can exploit the unique characteristics of the cassette medium rather than delegating them for use merely as recorded television. It is important to investigate support systems for teleconferencing as it is emerging as a means of delivering off-campus instruction.

Two of the major obstacles to using communications technologies for off-campus instruction are faculty resistance and lack of institutional support. Therefore, it is crucial that institutions involve faculty and administrators in the decision making process to adopt a new technology and offer training to faculty in the effective use of the new medium.

References

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EVALUATION OF THE INSERVICE EDUCATION ORDINANCE AND PROGRAMS FOR INDUSTRIAL VOCATIONAL TEACHERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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ABSTRACT: This study inquired into the attitudes of administrators and teachers in the Republic of China Industrial Vocational Schools toward the Inservice Education Ordinance enacted in 1985. It also recommended that adult learning theories and strategies be adopted for implementing inservice education for industrial vocational teachers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Significance

The quality of the teacher has an impact on the success of educational production. Increasing teachers' professional knowledge and enhancing teaching methods through inservice education is an effective approach to improving the outcome of education. To improve teacher inservice education, the Ministry of Education in the Republic of China (R.O.C.) issued the Inservice Education Ordinance for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers (hereafter referred to as the Ordinance) in 1985. The Ordinance has several significant aspects: it is the first statute regarding teacher inservice education, and some important elements are explicitly identified such as types and providers of inservice education.

Literature Review

A review of the inservice education literature clarified various dimensions. It provided the definition that inservice education is a kind of well-planned,goal oriented,continuing education activity designed to improve teachers' performance. Although the review affirmed that teachers' performance, morale and job satisfaction are improved through inservice education, and they are helped to keep pace with changing society and technology, the real significance lies in the fact that the ultimate beneficiaries are the students of these teachers who participate in inservice education.

The review also revealed that the content of inservice education needs to be a combination of practical experiences in occupational knowledge and skills, using learning theories and instructional strategies that encourage and facilitate self-directed learning, inquiry, discovery and decision-making. The most effective inservice education programs were identified as those which incorporate teachers' participation in the planning, designing and implementing while including feedback on participant progress and when conducted in the teachers' own school as well as in "on the spot" corporate settings.

Additionally, because teachers are adult learners when they are involved as participants in inservice education, educators need to utilize theories of adult learning when designing and conducting inservice education programs. Some studies indicate that an andragogical approach (the art and science of helping adults learn) appears to be the most effective in designing and conducting inservice education programs for adults.

Questions Considered

Although inservice education practices in the R.O.C. appeared comprehensive, problems existed such as unequal access, inadequate resources, ineffective programs and personnel conflicts which gave impetus to developing and enacting the ordinance in 1985. The Ordinance, however, fails to address several problems. Concerned only with elementary and secondary school teachers, it does not address the unique needs of special groups such as industrial vocational teachers. Because of these shortcomings, it is necessary to explore the attitudes of industrial vocational teachers and administrators toward the Ordinance and to trace its implementation and effectiveness in order to recommend amendments to the Ordinance.

The purpose, then, of this study was to evaluate the Ordinance to improve inservice education for industrial vocational teachers in Taiwan. Four questions gave direction to this study:

1. How has the Ordinance been implemented?
2. What are the attitudes of school administrators and teachers regarding the effects of the Ordinance on teachers' participation in inservice education?
3. What kinds of inservice education systems are preferred by school administrators and teachers?
4. How can changes in governmental policy improve inservice education for industrial vocational teachers?

Research Hypotheses

This study was basically descriptive. Previous research indicated that conflicts between administrators and teachers had affected teachers' participation in inservice education. Therefore, two hypotheses related to the second and third research questions, respectively, were tested:

No. 1: There are no significant differences between administrators' and teachers' mean attitude scores toward the effects of the Ordinance on teachers' participation in inservice education.

No. 2: Administrators' and teachers' preference frequencies on inservice education delivery systems are homogeneous.

METHODOLOGY

The Instrument: To answer the aforementioned research questions, the researchers developed a survey instrument, consisting of three sections:

Section I: Demographic data and personal information, such as the subjects' school type, and school location (see Table 1).

Section II: Information regarding the kinds of inservice education preferred by school administrators and teachers. This section included four multiple-choice questions about three topics (see Table 2-4).

Section III: Information regarding the attitudes and opinions of the subjects about the Ordinance. This section was a Likert-type attitude questionnaire containing 28 questions which addressed seven issues (see Table 6).

Populations and sample: One segment of the population surveyed consisted of all school principals (195) and directors of academic affairs (195) in industrial vocational schools in Taiwan. There were 5567 industrial vocational teachers who were teaching occupational courses comprised the second population. Ten percent (556) of the teacher population was selected as the sample. The administrator sample consisted of 374 administrators including 187 principals and 187 directors of academic affairs.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA

The nature of respondents in this study is shown in Table 1. The respondents from public and private schools reflected the population who received the questionnaire: 39.7 percent were from public schools and 60.3 percent were from private schools. Of the entire sample, 40.7 percent of the respondents were working for schools located in the northern area. The proportions of the respondents in the middle and southern areas were equal (27 percent). Only 4.6 percent of the respondents were from the eastern area. This response rate also reflected identical proportions of teachers in each geographical area in the total teacher population. The respondents in this study were representative of the population sampled.

Table 1 Nature of Respondents

	Administrator		Teacher		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Number	267	35.7	480	64.3	747	100
School Type						
Public	109	40.8	190	39.6	299	40.0
Private	158	59.2	290	60.4	448	60.0
Location of School						
Northern	103	38.6	201	41.9	304	40.7
Middle	76	28.5	129	26.9	205	27.4
Southern	75	28.1	129	26.9	204	27.3
Eastern	13	4.9	21	4.4	34	4.6

Administrators and teachers differed very little in their attitudes and opinions about the Ordinance and inservice education delivery methods. Chi-square tests of the responses in Section II of the instrument revealed homogeneity between administrators and teachers, except the designer of short-term inservice education curricula (see Table 2-4).

Table 2 Designers of Short-term Inservice Education Curricula

Item	Administrator %	Teacher %	Total %	Sig. .01
1. Curriculum specialists	57.7	41.7	47.4	*
2. Representatives of teachers	44.6	60.2	54.6	*
3. Principals and directors	43.8	33.5	37.2	*
4. College instructors	41.2	35.8	37.8	No
5. Governmental Administrators	14.2	6.9	9.5	*

For designers of short-term inservice education curricula, items selected by administrators were curriculum specialists, representatives of teachers, principals and directors, college instructors, and governmental administrators, ranked in order according to the proportion of respondents selecting the relative item. In the teacher respondents, the items were representatives of teachers, curriculum specialists, college instructors, principals and directors, and governmental administrators. (see Table 2)

Concerning time period for conducting inservice education and reasons for attending inservice education, teachers believed that summer vacation was the best time period to offer inservice education, and that the next most opportune times were weekends and Sundays. They chose "to improve knowledge and skills for instruction" as the strongest reason to attend inservice education. (see Table 3-4)

Table 3 Time Period for Conducting Inservice Education

Time Period	Daytime	Evening	Weekend & Sunday	Summer	Winter	Others
Percent	4.0	8.2	23.0	59.8	1.7	3.3

** Only teachers responded to this question

Table 4 Reasons for Attending Inservice Education

	Eligibility	Salary	Assessment	Knowledge	Others
Percent	14.6	5.9	0.4	67.7	11.4

** Only teachers responded to this question

Use of MANCOVA to analyze the responses in Section III of the instrument revealed that there were no meaningful differences between administrators and teachers. The first research hypothesis was accepted (see Table 5-6).

Table 5 MANCOVA of Differences in Mean Attitude Scores

Wilks Multivariate Tests of Significance

Value	Approx. F	Hypoth. DF	Error DF	Sig. of F
.96407	3.90781	7.00	734	.000 *

Univariate F-tests (DF=1, 740)

Var.	SSb	SSw	MSb	MSw	F	Sig. of F
A	3.207	227.475	3.207	0.307	10.432	.001 *
B	0.085	205.611	0.085	0.278	0.305	.581
C	0.464	211.962	0.464	0.286	1.620	.204
D	0.968	325.060	0.968	0.439	2.203	.138
E	1.710	361.239	1.710	0.488	3.503	.062
F	2.096	235.594	2.096	0.318	6.584	.010 *
G	1.360	374.534	1.360	0.506	2.687	.102

R^2 (A)=.0139 R^2(F)=.0088

Respondents only gave positive scores (slightly more than 3.0) to Issues B and A. This indicates the subjects had slightly positive attitudes toward the incentive policies and the implementation of the Ordinance. The scores of Issue C, D and G were very close to 3.0, indicating that neither groups had strong feelings toward the relations between the teacher's priority to attend inservice education and his or her seniority, the implementation of the teaching certificate renewal policy, as well as how the Ordinance had influenced teachers' participation in inservice education. The mean scores of Issues E, and F were less than 3.0, especially Issue E, indicating the subjects expected that inservice education should be mandatory, and that the government should bear the expenses of inservice education. (see Table 6)

Table 6 Differences of Adjusted Grand Means to 3.0 (No Opinion) and Adjusted Mean Scores on Each Issue

FACTOR	Adjusted Grand Mean	Difference (AGM-3.0)		Adjusted Mean
Variable .. A	How has the Ordinance been implemented?			
			Administrator	3.381
	3.245	+0.245	Teacher	3.169
Variable .. B	How do the subjects respond to the incentive policies of the Ordinance?			
			Administrator	3.363
	3.385	+0.385	Teacher	3.397
Variable .. C	How has the Ordinance influenced teachers' participation in inservice education?			
			Administrator	2.773
	2.824	-0.176	Teacher	2.853
Variable .. D	Should the teacher's priority to attend inservice education be determined by seniority?			
			Administrator	2.891
	2.957	-0.043	Teacher	2.993
Variable .. E	Who should pay for inservice education: the government or the teacher?			
			Administrator	2.515
	2.416	-0.584	Teacher	2.361
Variable .. F	Should inservice education be mandatory?			
			Administrator	2.514
	2.624	-0.376	Teacher	2.685
Variable .. G	Should the teaching certificate renewal policy be implemented?			
			Administrator	2.802
	2.890	-0.110	Teacher	2.939

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Several conclusions are drawn from the findings of this study:

1. The respondents in this study are representative of the population sampled; therefore the external validity of this study is considered high.
2. Administrators and teachers differ very little in their attitudes and opinions about the Ordinance and inservice education delivery methods.
3. The subjects have no strong feeling about the Ordinance.
4. The respondents have slightly positive attitudes toward the implementation of the Ordinance.
5. Administrators and teachers believe that the effectiveness of the Ordinance's incentive policies is adequate.
6. Similar delivery methods of inservice education are preferred by school administrators and teachers. They believe that teachers who desire to attend the program, curriculum specialists, school administrators, and college instructors should be involved in planning the curricula of short-term inservice education programs. According to the respondents, summer vacations, weekends and Sundays are optimum times to offer inservice education programs. Improved knowledge and skills for instruction is the major reason teachers list for attending inservice education. According to the respondents, the government should pay costs of inservice education.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the investigator makes the following recommendations:

1. The following policies should be incorporated into the Ordinance to strengthen its effects on teachers' participation in inservice education: a) The amount of money budgeted for inservice education should be stated explicitly; b) The government should pay all costs needed for short-term and teaching-related inservice education; c) Policies for rewarding the providers of inservice education should be added to the Ordinance; and d) Standards for rewarding teachers who engage in inservice education should be established.

2. The instructor of inservice education should apply theories of adult education in teaching the participants. The review of literature reveals that by applying the methods of andragogy, the art and science of teaching adults, in industrial training has been more effective in helping adult trainees to obtain management competencies and technical skills.

3. Since this study was conducted only two years after the announcement of the Ordinance, the investigator recommends continuous evaluation of the Ordinance. Furthermore, experimental studies should be conducted to reveal whether andragogy is applicable to inservice education in Taiwan. There are many research findings that indicate andragogy is conducive to inservice education in the United States and other countries; however, it has not been adopted in Taiwan. The investigator, therefore, recommends that experimental studies related to the application of theories of adult education be conducted as soon as possible.

The results of this study are beneficial to the Government of the Republic of China in amending the Ordinance and improving inservice education for industrial vocational teachers. The results also have implications for inservice education policy considerations in other countries.

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Antonio Gramsci's Concept of 'Organic Intellectualism and the Politics of Adult Education

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Abstract: As a theoretical construction, Gramsci's 'organic intellectualism' entails a critique of traditional liberal doctrines of educational neutrality. As a model of practice, the concept implies the integration of adult education with working class political organization.

In recent years adult educators concerned with revitalizing their field's longstanding traditions of social activism and democratic political commitment have looked to the works of the Italian social theorist, Antonio Gramsci (1898 - 1937) for a useful model of theory and practice. However, the historically bounded and highly complex character of Gramsci's theoretical writings, together with continuing disagreements among various interpreters, have frustrated attempts to make concrete use of his ideas. The purpose of the study now under discussion was, by grappling with these problems of "translation", to define and elaborate the theoretical and practical implications of Gramsci's concept of organic intellectualism for the political analysis and organization of the field of adult education.

The study involved critical analysis and systematic interpretation of Gramsci's Prison Notebooks (1978) and sociological, historical and philosophical literature relevant to the interests of adult education. Employing a theoretical framework derived from historical materialist social theory, the study examined and sought to evaluate Gramsci's ideas from the standpoint of working class interests in adult education. First, a historical and sociological analysis of working class interests and involvement in adult education was employed to identify issues in adult education theory and practice that relate to the problems of a growing alienation and lack of common interest between adult educators and the working class. Second, Gramsci's writings were examined as a body of political theory which is centrally concerned with this same "problem of the intellectuals". Finally, Gramsci's concept of organic intellectualism was employed to articulate a historically grounded critique of the current organization and ideology of adult education.

A Liberal Interpretation: Summary and Critique

To date, the most extensive and widely read study of Gramsci's educational thought remains Harold Entwistle's Antonio Gramsci: Conservative Schooling for Radical Politics (1979). Entwistle's work concentrates on Gramsci's explicitly educational writings and produces an account of Gramsci as a recanted marxist who came to embrace the principles of liberal educational philosophy. Accordingly, Gramsci is presented as an adult educator who sought to provide the workers of his time with "the kind of disinterested humanistic education which had been denied to all except the socially priviliged" (Entwistle, 1979:177). The problem with this interpretation is that it effectively divorces politics from the knowledge-content and organizational forms of (an ideal) workers' education. This aspect of Entwistle's work is not in keeping with Gramsci's emphasis on the importance and all-pervasiveness of ideology as an essential means of reproducing and reinforcing existing class relations. According to Gramsci, "ideologies ... create the terrain on which men move, acquire consciousness of their position and struggle" (Gramsci, 1978: 337).

Entwistle's interpretation begins with and depends upon an unclear treatment of Gramsci's theory of hegemony, which he reduces to the idea of "the history of educational relationships" occurring between different social classes (Entwistle, 1979: 10-17). This leads to a view of hegemony as the raising of the level of politically neutral knowledge among one or another class as the only basis of class rule in an ostensibly democratic society. Entwistle argues, therefore, that Gramsci recommended educational reforms that would make superior knowledge broadly available to the working class, considering that public educational provision would provide workers with the means to "replace the capitalist economy" through the activity of trade unions, factory councils and the participation of working class political parties in the liberal democratic state (Entwistle, 1979: 129 - 130).

The politics of this argument are clearly reformist in character and its basic assumptions concerning the neutrality of educational knowledge and the impartiality of state institutions are derived from liberal, rather than marxist, philosophy. Entwistle treats Gramsci's distinction between "traditional" and "organic" intellectuals as a "confusion of categories" and arrives at a reformulation in which there is no necessary connection between the activity of intellectuals and the political positions they may adopt. He claims that "though an intellectual may have served the existing hegemony, the skills he has to deploy are independent of it" (Entwistle, 1979: 117). This assertion collapses the objective political distinctions which Gramsci drew between the two types of intellectual by basing his analysis on "the ensemble of social relations in which these activities (and therefore the social groups who personify them) have their place within the general complex of social relations" (Gramsci, 1978: 8).

Organic Intellectualism in Gramsci's Political Theory

Traditional intellectuals, in Gramsci's analysis, were those who, through their "special qualification" and historical separation from the fundamental classes (capital and labour), "put themselves forward as autonomous and independent of the dominant social group" (Gramsci, 1978: 7). Organic intellectuals were those who were connected with one or another fundamental class by virtue of their activity as "organizers" who served to provide the class in question with "homogeneity and an awareness of its own function not only in the economic but also in the social and political fields" (Gramsci, 1978: 5). As Gramsci's terms of definition indicate, the "politics" of the different types of intellectuals cannot be neatly divorced from their "technical activity", which is itself largely ideological in character. In this way, Gramsci produces an account of "the intellectuals" that is a critique, rather than a vindication, of the liberal conception of the "free floating intelligentsia". He is, in fact, explicit that as a historical process hegemony is accomplished through the organizational and technical means through which the organic intellectuals of a social class aspiring to dominance "assimilate and conquer 'ideologically' the traditional intellectuals" (Gramsci, 1978: 10). His theory of hegemony as "intellectual history" is based upon and extends Marx's concept of ideology, which does not refer simply to beliefs or specious reasoning but, rather, to the manner in which the presupposition of a definite order of class relations is internalized in the forms taken by specific intellectual activities and thereby elaborated in the general development of social consciousness (Marx and Engels, 1970). Accordingly, Gramsci's theory identifies the source of inauthentic forms of political organization and social consciousness among workers as the structure of the institutions and social processes through which workers are educated, both formally and informally. He insists that an oppositional structure of "counter-hegemony" must be elaborated on the basis of the autonomous organization of the working class and allied social groups.

In analyzing the manner in which workers are progressively divorced from any comprehensive knowledge of the processes of production and political and economic organization, Gramsci described the essential activity of intellectuals organic to the capitalist class. In his analysis of the state, Gramsci described the development, by these same organic intellectuals, of an apparatus through which the traditional intellectuals are effectively co-opted into governing and administering the processes of social reproduction on behalf of the class in control of production. It is, therefore, the special function of the traditional intellectuals to "organize consent" for the social order by promulgating forms of knowledge whose organizing principles derive from this social division of labour, presenting the imperatives of class domination as matters of technical necessity - logical, not political. This system breaks down, however, when the exigencies of economic development and political instability require capital to take a more direct role in regulating society (Gramsci, 1978: 26 - 43, 206 - 276). Under these circumstances traditional intellectuals rediscover the politics of knowledge and become increasingly prone to forging alliances with the subordinate classes.

In Gramsci's analysis, the basic principles of an alternative organization of knowledge and society are present, implicitly, in the social experience and resultant "common sense" of workers as cooperative producers and organizers of production. Intellectuals organic to the working class - i.e., whose activity represents and rationalizes these functions - must promote and elaborate the submerged class consciousness of workers through forms of organization which facilitate its transformation into a political philosophy capable of involving the knowledge and interests of other classes. In practical terms, this developmental process begins with, and continues to depend upon, the integration of traditional intellectuals within organizations and social movements led by workers. In brief, Gramsci conceives of the revolutionary party as the primary vehicle for workers' education (Gramsci,1978: 125 - 205). But this party is not to be an 'elite' vanguard organization; rather it consists of a diversity of popular organizations and concentrates, not simply on seizing state power, but on creating an alternative and more fundamentally democratic organization of society by linking initiatives for workers' control of industry with a multiplicity of struggles for social equality. Organic intellectualism expresses the forms of knowledge articulated in creating this new order.

Organic Intellectualism and Adult Education

Employing Gramsci's categories and method of analysis, it can be argued that the growing tendency among adult educators to define their field of practice as a form of traditional intellectualism - i.e., an autonomous profession standing apart from class based politics - is a product of their incorporation into capitalist hegemony. Through the "welfare state" organic intellectuals of the capitalist class have come to exert an unprecedented degree of "indirect" control over the organization, education and politics of the subordinate classes. Adult education has been very much a part of this development, as the example of the institution of "lifelong learning" systems designed primarily to accommodate the changing "growth" needs of capital clearly demonstrates. The ethos of professional adult education has supported and legitimized this and other processes of co-optation through which agencies of social reproduction indigenous to the working class are incorporated into the state's administrative apparatus and removed from democratic control by their original constituencies. Thus, traditional intellectualism in adult education has rationalized the erosion of a former identity of interests shared by adult educators and the working class movement. This development, in turn, has greatly facilitated the concomitant displacement of workers' struggles into a wholly economistic framework, obscuring the political nature of class society and legitimizing the existing division of labour as amenable to reform through "technical" means.

Through these means, both adult educators and workers have been effectively integrated into a sophisticated structure of class domination. This system of hegemony simultaneously encourages their mutual alienation and threatens their disintegration as constituents of an organized political movement. The current incapacity of formal sector adult education to act as a an agency of social reform and political democratization demonstrates the extent to which the field is now in danger of becoming "organic" to capital, rather than labour. A reversal of this trend would depend on removing adult education from the administrative apparatus of the state and basing its practice within popular organizations formed to advance working class interests.

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An Analysis of Selected Factors Differentiating Participation in Two Nontraditional Delivery Systems

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Abstract

The results of this research indicate that these populations varied significantly on two of fifteen learning objective factors, seven learning format factors and two personal trait factors. The results indicate that adult students choose learning formats that meet their perceived preferences even before they encounter these methods.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to examine the participation of adults who voluntarily chose different nontraditional education delivery systems. The research was initiated because of the findings of earlier studies on the topic of participation and persistence involving single delivery systems. The previous research studies had been reported in Adult Education Quarterly, at AERC and LLLRC meetings. The results of the studies have led to a comparative examination of two diverse delivery systems. The hypothesis was that adult students are very conscious of choices that involve anticipated outcomes and, therefore, use varied learning formats. If the hypothesis is accurate, significant differences should be found in the areas of learning method, preference, and learning objectives.

A secondary purpose was to examine the factors that were involved in the choice of weekend format by first time students. This secondary purpose, although not a part of this paper, was that the data was to influence the course offerings for the weekend format and were reported to the faculty of Northeastern State University.

Methodology

This research focused upon twenty-three factors in the area of learning methods, fifteen learning objectives items, fifteen demographic factors and twenty-one personal trait factors. It was not the intent of the researchers to examine the demographic or personal trait factors. Those items were included to isolate any population differences that might have an effect. Data were obtained from two hundred twenty nontraditional liberal studies distance education students. One hundred and fifty-two adult students were surveyed who were enrolled in a nontraditional weekend college program. In both cases the curriculum was general and liberal studies. In both cases the students did not have previous experience with the format they had chosen.

The results of these two data collections were compared on all the factors in the study. A chi square analysis was utilized where the analysis of mean difference appeared to indicate that true differences did appear.

Description of the Data

The tables presented in this section will present the areas of significant difference between the two populations studied. The data on the tables contain the following information: frequency (the population in each cell), expected (the statistical expectation of population in that cell), and cell chi square (the chi square value for that cell that contributes to the total chi square value shown below the table). "BLS" refers to Bachelor of Liberal Studies students, and "weekend" refers to weekend college students.

Table 1
High School Grades as a
Reflection of Current Motivation

		Great Extent	Somewhat	No Extent
BLS				
	frequency	85	64	71
	expected	67.4	82.8	69.8
	cell chi sq.	4.58	4.27	.021
Weekend				
	frequency	29	76	47
	expected	46.6	57.2	48.2
	cell chi sq.	6.64	6.18	.031
		DF	Value	Prob.
	chi square	2	21.71	.000

In Table 1, the significant difference is clearly represented by the responses of the BLS students in relation to the weekend students in the cell "Great Extent:. The BLS students believed that the grades they achieved in high school were a better predictor of their current motivation than did the weekend college students. Since none of the demographic characteristics were significantly different between the two populations, it is difficult to speculate as to the nature of this difference. In an earlier study (Langenbach, Korhonen, 1988) this factor of previous grades was a predictor of persistence between those that finished the liberal studies program and those that did not finish. This difference between programs might be important at a later date when persistence within a weekend format can be analyzed to see if this is important to persistence across curricular models.

Table 2
To Obtain a Credential

		Unimport.	Somewhat	Import.	Very Import.	Extremely Import.
BLS						
	frequency	48	39	39	35	56
	expected	42.9	30.0	41.8	34.7	67.6
	cell chi sq.	.599	2.70	.182	.003	1.99
Weekend						
	frequency	25	12	32	24	59
	expected	30.1	21.0	29.2	24.3	47.4
	cell chi sq.	.855	3.86	.259	.004	2.85
			DF	Value	Prob.	
	Chi square		2	21.71	.010	

The data in Table 2 show the weekend students had a clear motivation to obtain a credential. This motivation was not evident to the same degree in the BLS population. The BLS program emphasized personal growth and does not fill a professional degree need. The weekend college courses could be applied to a variety of degree programs. It is clear that the BLS program students chose this curriculum model fully aware of its limitations in the pursuit of credentialing.

Table 3
To Develop a Career

	Unimport.	Somewhat Import.	Import.	Very Import.	Extremely Import.
BLS					
frequency	46	34	34	35	69
expected	35.4	30.7	33.7	38.4	79.8
cell chi sq.	3.14	.350	.003	.301	1.45
Weekend					
frequency	14	18	23	30	66
expected	24.6	21.3	23.3	26.6	55.2
cell chi sq.	4.54	.505	.005	.435	2.09
		DF	Value	Prob.	
Chi Square		4	12.82	.012	

In Table 3 the significant difference between the populations occurred in the cells on either end of the continuum. The BLS students were over represented in the category "unimportant". The Weekend students were over represented in the category "Extremely Important." The anomaly in this data is that there were a number of BLS students who stated that they were pursuing this study motivated by a new career. Although not significant in relation to the weekend population, it is still a sizable percentage. The data do show that the BLS students are more evenly distributed on the continuum while the weekend students are skewed to the higher end of the scale toward "Extremely Important."

The greatest difference between the groups occurred in the area of "ways of learning." Seven of these factors proved to significantly differentiate the two populations.

Table 4
Helpfulness of Workbooks
and Programmed Instruction

	Little Help	Helpful	Very Helpful
BLS			
frequency	6	108	108
expected	19.0	113.4	89.4
cell chi sq.	8.89	.255	3.76
Weekend			
frequency	26	83	43
expected	13.0	77.6	61.4
cell chi sq.	12.98	.372	5.50
	DF	Value	Prob.
Chi Square	2	31.76	.000

The BLS students indicate a much clearer preference for workbooks and programmed instruction. Neither of these programs utilizes these types of instructional methods, but this finding might indicate that independent learning curriculum is generalizable to a variety of methods as interpreted by the learners. The weekend college students were significantly under represented in the cell "Very Helpful."

Table 5
Developing Your Own Project
or Writing a Comprehensive Paper

	Little Help	Helpful	Very Helpful
BLS			
frequency	16	100	107
expected	26.7	106.2	90.1
cell chi sq.	4.28	.358	3.15
Weekend			
frequency	29	79	45
expected	18.3	72.8	61.9
cell chi sq.	6.24	.521	4.59
	DF	Value	Prob.
Chi Square	2	19.14	.000

The central component of the BLS program is the development of personal projects and comprehensive papers. The date in Table 5 indicate that the students selecting the BLS program made a clear connection between their learning preferences and the program design. Remember that these students had not yet been involved with either instructional method before they responded to this instrument.

Table 6
Reading Texts and Resource
Material

	Little Help	Helpful	Very Helpful
BLS			
frequency	3	76	144
expected	8.9	87.6	126.4
cell chi sq.	3.95	1.55	2.45
Weekend			
frequency	12	71	68
expected	6.1	59.4	85.6
cell chi sq.	5.83	2.29	3.62
	DF	Value	Prob.
Chi Square	2	19.68	.000

The BLS students were greatly over represented in the cell "Very Helpful." This finding again supports the independent study nature of the curriculum in liberal studies. These students appear to be making an active connection between preference for instruction and instructional method.

Table 7
Critiquing Books and Writing

	Little Help	Helpful	Very Helpful
BLS			
frequency	35	119	65
expected	47.9	112.5	58.6
cell chi sq.	3.49	.380	.70
Weekend			
frequency	46	71	34
expected	33.1	77.5	40.4
cell chi sq.	5.07	.55	1.01
	DF	Value	Prob.
Chi Square	2	11.21	.000

The trends in both groups is to indicate that critiquing books and writing is "Helpful." The BLS students are under represented in the cell "Little Help"; the weekend students were under represented in the cell "Very Helpful." It must be remembered that when a large number of cases are compared, small differences can indicate significance. In these cases the contingency coefficient may be small. This is true in this case. Although the populations vary significantly on this factor, the contingency coefficient is low enough to cause concern. We have included this data because critiquing books and writing represents an integral part of the liberal studies model.

Table 8
Classroom Instruction

	Little Help	Helpful	Very Helpful
BLS			
frequency	16	149	57
expected	14.9	132.5	74.6
cell chi sq.	.078	2.06	4.15
Weekend			
frequency	9	73	68
expected	10.1	89.5	50.4
cell chi sq.	.116	3.05	6.14
	DF	Value	Prob.
Chi Square	2	15.60	.000

These data in Table 8 indicate greater preference for classroom instruction on the part of weekend students. Both populations indicated this method was helpful to them in their pursuit, but the weekend students were over represented in the cell "Very Helpful."

Two personal trait factors were also significant: physical vigor and optimism. The BLS students indicated a higher degree of physical vigor and optimism. It is difficult to assess the source of these differences since no demographic differences seem to be operating. These results are anomalies for further study.

Conclusions

The results of the research indicate that the populations studied varied significantly on two of the fifteen learning objectives factors. Both of the significant factors involved career objectives. The weekend adult students were significantly more interested in career enhancement and job factors than were the liberal studies students. It is interesting to note that these were the only factors in this area that proved significant. Seven of the learning format preference items were significant. It seems clear that students can differentiate format preferences. What is more important is that the items of significant difference were directly related to the format of the program they chose to attend.

This research has important implications for the filed. Adult students clearly choose formats that meet their perceived preferences, even before they are encountered. It is possible that this anticipation has implications for satisfaction, persistence, and success. In this study there did not appear to be demographic factors that effect this choice pattern.

Using the demographic and personal trait factor items as a population screen, two personal trait factors were shown to be significant. The liberal studies students rated themselves higher on "optimism" and on "physical vigor." The demographic factors indicated that the weekend college students were younger, although the age spread was the same, and that the liberal studies students were more likely to be married. These differences do not appear to have a dramatic effect on the interpretation of the results.

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ADULT EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION: THE MAKING OF AN IDEA

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Abstract

The theoretical crisis on the political left is also a crisis for radical adult education. For nearly two centuries, radicals have been confronted by a reformist challenge. In an age of neo-Conservativism, both traditions have lost their way.

Background: Social change or social transformation?

The idea that adult education's social purpose is to change society extends back into the nineteenth century (Fieldhouse, 1977). But it is a deceptive idea, for the notion of 'changing' society is not necessarily the same as the notion of 'transforming' society. The confusion between these two notions is evident in the literature of adult education where the terms change and transformation are often used interchangeably. It is compounded by the confusion of personal and 'perspective' transformations with social transformations (Collard & Law, 1989). In this paper, social transformation is defined in terms of a distinctive transition from capitalist to socialist economic and social relations.

Some of the core problems in radically inclined adult education theory and practice are highlighted in Paul Armstrong's (1988) recent study of the relationship between the British working class and the education of adults from 1850 to 1930. In the hands of adult educators, the language of social change is often the language of reformism. This is not surprising, for there has long been a symbiotic relationship between left-wing adult education, trade unions, and labour or social democratic parties. In the major capitalist countries, social democracy has been the most successful form of working class politics (Esping-Andersen, 1985).

Once the reformist welfare state met, or at least promised to meet, reasonably adequately the everyday aspirations of working people, both the objective and subjective conditions for a more radical social transformation were largely absent. But with the slow disintegration of the post World War II social democratic consensus and the subsequent ascendence of neo-Conservatism, there is evidence in the adult education literature of an interest in a more radical educational agenda. Over the past decade this has manifested itself in a variety of ways. The formation of the *International League for Social Commitment in Adult Education*, an upsurge of interest in 'popular education', the rediscovery of North American innovations such as Antigonish (Lotz & Welton, 1987), Highlander (Adams, 1975), and Folk High Schools (Paulston & Altenbaugh, 1988), the North American flirtation with critical social theory, and the attention given to the writings of people like Paulo Freire, Henry Giroux, Nell Keddie, Tom Lovett, and Jane Thompson can all be seen as straws in the wind.

This renewed interest in a slightly more radical approach to education comes, however, at a time when the global left is confronted with two crises (Aronowitz, 1986-87). The first, is the longstanding crisis in and of Marxism. The second, more recent and more fundamental, interrogates socialism as an alternative to capitalism on a number of counts, including its 'inevitability' as the successor to capitalism. Some argue that it is only a possible alternative (Heller, 1982); others question the extent to which socialism as a social movement can subsume the 'new social movements', such as those concerned with issues of ethnicity, gender, and the environment (Cohen, 1982). Most serious for adult education, is the current questioning, if not rejection, of the assumption in socialism that the working class is the agent of history. For in many ways, both reformist and (radical) transformationist views on adult education have been premised on the same assumption, the emergence of a revolutionary working class. The former sought to mitigate class antagonism through reform; the latter sought to direct it towards the realization of a vision of socialist transformation. Historically, three paths to socialist transition have been considered: (1) revolution; (2) cumulative reform; (3) a transformation of the class system including its institutions and values leading to the creation of new classes: a 'cultural revolution' (Thompson, 1978, pp. 281-282).

It is against this mosaic of problems of social theory and political practice that this paper explores the ways in which those committed to social transformation formulated and reworked a radical concept of adult education that was confronted continuously, from the 1850s by more reformist tendencies. It does this by pointing to selected phases and milestones within the radical tradition. It facilitates an understanding of the radical tradition as a basis for rethinking contemporary ideas about adult education for social transformation.

Theoretical perspective and research approach

This study is located within a neo-Marxist framework which pivots around Marx's (1852/1978, p. 545) observation that people "make their own history", but not "in circumstances chosen by themselves." More specifically, it draws on insights from the British, 'culturalist' tradition, in particular the "bottom up" approach to history with which Edward Thompson is identified.

The research offers an inter-textual analysis containing elements of both an history of ideas and of historical sociology in the sense that Popkewitz (1988) employs the term. This approach involved the identification and theoretically informed interpretation of themes and trends in both primary literature (the writings of radical activists) and secondary literature (historical studies and biographies).

From certainty to doubt: Some findings

Critical to any understanding of the origins of transformative adult education is a generous concept of literacy. For it is in the late eighteenth century, in particular in England, that the ballads, the handbills, the discussions in a variety of informal social settings joined with the experience of oppositional struggles to crystallize into a distinctively radical political-educative movement. People were beginning to read their world more critically at the same time as the industrial revolution and various religious groups were encouraging the growth of literacy in the sense of reading. The emergence of a popular, radical press in the early nineteenth century appropriated this growth of literacy. The precursors to the later activists were the "fiery, proud, self-conceited hot-heads" (Baxter 1696/1938) in Cromwell's army: probably the first people to employ popular education in pursuit of democratic reform. In the 1760s, there is a noticeable shift in the political understanding of the 'London mob'. It was, in Edward Thompson's (1963/1968, p. 75) words "a transitional mob on its way to becoming a radical crowd." However, the threshold to the tradition examined here is in the 1790s.

Some feel for the formation of a specifically working class radicalism can be obtained by contrasting events in France in 1789 with those in England a few years later. On 11 July 1789, the French National Assembly promulgated the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen.* This was intended as a deliberately educative act. According to Thomas Paine, one of the Marquis de Lafayette's purposes in bringing the *Declaration* forward at that time was to ensure that even if the Assembly failed because of counter moves by the King "some trace of its principles might have the chance of surving the wreck" (Quoted in Waldron, 1987, p. 23). Paine's (1791-92/1987) *The rights of man* was intended as a similarly educative endeavour. It expressed in secular terms, popular sentiment based on the notion of equality in God's sight. But whereas the French declaration was published by the National Assembly, Paine's writings were popularized through a programme of systematic adult education financed and conducted by an emerging working class.

The British Government's Committee on Secrecy report of 1794 provides valuable insights into the making of the radical education tradition. It records how the Sheffield Correspondence Society "first originated in an assembly of five or six mechanics" who, after analyzing the social conditions of working people, "concluded that nothing but ignorance in the people suffer the natural rights of freeman to be thus violated." What was needed was organization and education. They formed a Society, established branches in neighbouring districts and republished *The Rights of Man* "at the low price of 6d. per copy," in order "to extend useful knowledge from town to village, and from village to town, until the whole nation be sufficiently enlightened ..." (Horrabin, 1924, p. 24). Contained here are elements of a emerging critical theory with practical intent centred on a belief in the transformative potential of popular adult education.

The story of radical education from the 1790s to the late 1840s has been told by Richard Johnson (1980) and Thompson (1963/1968). To a large extent it was framed by Painite theory; it was largely nonformal; a cornerstone was the radical press. It was also, by and large, a male adult education. This is not to say that women were not active in popular movements or in informal educational endeavours (Rowbotham, 1972), but rather to underscore how that involvement was rendered largely invisible. Up until the 1840s, it is possible to talk--at the risk of some reductionism--about the educative dimension of a reasonably coherent oppositional movement focussing on electoral reform: Chartism. It was this tradition that Engels (1845/1973) studied in 1844. Engels' observations about independent, radical education for adults had a continuing influence on his and Marx's subsequent work as political activists and strategists. He was excited by the radical press and had an understanding of how this dovetailed with a network of reading rooms, discussion groups, lecture series and so forth that formed an integral part of radical political organization and practice. For him independence was the key; he was alert to the way in which the Mechanics Institutes had been appropriated by bourgeois interests. He also had a notion of "solid education" which he employs in order to comment favourably on the intellectual capacity of the working class.

Ironically, Engels encounted the English working class at precisely the moment that Edward Thompson (1978, p. 281) holds it became "imbricated" in capitalist relations. This process can be traced back programmatically to Paine who in *The rights of man* sketches elements of a welfare state. Thompson's argument, however, focuses more specifically on the establishment of co-operative movements and economistic trade unions in the 1840s. He holds that as the working class pushed for influence in the bourgeois-democratic state, it became a partner in the running of the system even though the partnership may be antagonistic. Armstrong (1988) traces the trajectory of reformist education that runs from the co-operative movement to the formation of the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) and from there to post World War II social democratic, community development adult education.

From the late 1840s, the storyline of radical social transformationism is linked inextricably with the growth of the Marxist political party. In their early writings, Marx and Engels placed a great deal of emphasis on the learning that takes place in the course of political struggles: the "school of labour". And as late as the 1890s, the idea of learning through struggle was still present in Engels' letters and prefaces. But it is clear from their writings that they also recognized the necessity of a *supplementary* working class pedagogy. By linking Walter Adamson's (1980) work on Marx and Engels' ideas about political education with Johnstone's (1967) study of their ideas about 'the party', one can see how a more traditional notion of organized political education crystallized as the Marxist political party began to take shape. By the 1870s, the notion of the party as the bearer of enlightenment had firmed. This was very much the model in Germany (Textor, 1986) and in other Western European countries that took their lead from the German Social Democratic Party.

But something else was happening in both the reformist and transformist traditions. Working class adult education was becoming a more specific enterprise in its own right. Whether education for party cadres or advanced study for union leaders, workers' education--at least at these advanced levels--became somewhat distanced from the everyday process of political struggle. This tendency was consolidated around the turn of the century with the establishment of Ruskin Hall in Oxford in 1899, the Rand School in New York in 1906, the Labour Colleges in Britain after the Ruskin strike in 1908/09, Brookwood and other colleges in the United States, and internal party education. As a result, this period saw the emergence of the specialist, albeit often radical, adult (worker) educator.

After World War I, in the major capitalist countries, Marxism steadily lost ground to either social democracy or fascism. Of course, in many countries Marxists played a very important educative role during radical eras, especially during the Depression; but overall, the influence of the Communist Party as an educative force among the working class declined. Thus the stage was set for post World War II radical education. Two important trends can be identified. First, as the vision of a socialist transition retreated, radicals continuously revised their sense of possibility. As a generalization, postwar radical adult educators--often the focus of Cold War McCarthyism (Fieldhouse, 1980; Law, 1988)--limited themselves to more localized political education: either in the sense of a geographic locality or in the sense of a focus on a single cause, for example, Highlander's concentration on Black civil rights. Second, as many radical adult educators were now employed by some sort of institution, often a state funded educational body, educational possibilities were often explored within a state sponsored (statist) setting rather than in independent (substitutionist) environments.

New times, old dilemmas: Some conclusions

'Statism' versus 'substitutionism' has been a recurring theme in radical adult education (Johnson, 1980). In many respects, how individuals resolve this dilemma reflects their sense of what is possible politically and how that possibility may be realized. These days, no one seriously anticipates revolution on the Leninist model. Nor, in the wake of the Swedish retreat from radicalism in the late 1970s (Pontusson, 1987), does cumulative reform through a more or less constitutional party seem as likely as it once did. So what *is* left? At the moment two answers are tentatively being suggested. Both revolve around the notion of a semi-autonomous civil society (Cohen, 1982; Keane, 1988). This idea has close links with Habermas' concept of the 'public sphere' (Hohendahl, 1979). The first answer focuses on localized activity in more or less within the existing educational system, the path charted by Henry Giroux and others. The second, often linked loosely to the first, points to the new social movements. This appears to present new problems.

Although theorists differ about the character of new social movements, there is a broad consensus that the assumptions underpinning Marx's social analysis no longer apply (Boggs, 1986). A new social movement strategy seems to imply an abandonment of the notion of the working class as the historical agent along with much of the socialist project. Further, probably realistically, it means abandoning the assumptions of economic growth and 'development' that underpin existing economic, social and political relations. But neither the social movement theorists nor the activists offer any coherent, practical political agenda; as the Green Party has found in West Germany, it is difficult to translate disparate single issue concerns into a coherent programme for participating in electoral politics. The prospects for radical adult education, therefore, are limited still to essentially localized concerns. In terms of more substantial social transformation, radical adult education appears to have lost its way.

It is the very open ended, almost speculative character of these conclusions and their implications for radical adult education that point to the significance of this study. For these are not settled conclusions, but rather problem-posing points of departure: suggestive ways of thinking about how one reads the field's history, considers its present and its future, frames related empirical research, and engages in innovative practice.

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EXAMINING NEW PARADIGMS FOR WORKPLACE LEARNING

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Abstract:

This article is a summary of selected findings from research on managers in Action Learning programs conducted by the Management Institute, Lund, Sweden in order to illustrate several dimensions of new paradigms for workplace learning. Organizations in the United States are changing as they confront the demands of a highly technological, post-industrial, global marketplace. The "behaviorist" paradigm for training workers is changing as well. Action Learning is used to illustrate dimensions of an emerging paradigm for workplace learning.

Background

In previous work (Marsick 1987, 1988a), I reviewed trends in the post-industrial world and workforce that presage an emerging paradigm for understanding and facilitating workplace learning because of the demands placed on organizations by the global marketplace. Workplace learning in the United States to date has been dominated by a "behaviorist" perspective that emphasizes the acquisition of specific task-related behaviors that can be quantified and measured. Success is individually-oriented and measured by short-run results. Personal development is often separated from professional development. Except for the highest levels of the organization, employees are trained to follow clearly-defined directions, with little expectation that they would need to use their judgment in making decisions. These models have worked well when it has been possible to identify expert solutions for trainees to follow.

However, some companies are questioning time-honored ways of doing business, and as this happens, their systems for training and development are also changing. Recipes for success are no longer clear, and thus, it is harder to determine exactly what managers and employees need for success. As companies become decentralized and more service-oriented, employees at all levels of the organization must exercise judgment in their interactions with customers and one another. And yet, training seldom prepares people for this kind of independent decision-making since it focuses on prescriptive solutions. Networking and team work are replacing work patterns based on individual responsibility and isolation, but training designs still emphasize individual solutions. If team work is taught, it is usually done so as an isolated set of skills.

Action Learning

This article describes preliminary findings from exploratory research on Action Learning programs that I believe illustrate a new paradigm for understanding workplace learning. Action Learning is used in many different settings when problems are complex, systemic, and ambiguous (*e. g.,* Marsick,1988b; Marsick, forthcoming; Marsick & Cederholm, in press; Pedler, 1983). Action Learning is best articulated by Revans (1971, 1982), although staff at the Management Institute, Lund, Sweden (MiL) -- the focus of my research -- did not know of his approach at the time they designed theirs. During the nationalization of the coal industry in England, Revans found that workers learned best when they worked in teams on real-life problems. He based his model on his own work as a physicist; his team examined failures to learn from the problem, not blame the person. Revans distinguished between "P" learning, that is, programmed knowledge based on the past, and "Q" learning, that is, questioning insight oriented to the future. MiL staff also emphasize "Q" learning. Training often focuses on helping managers to polish familiar skills in their current jobs, develop skills for new tasks in the same job, or practice skills they know in a new job. In such cases, it is relatively easy to build on known "P" expertise. However, as managers climb the ladder, they often find themselves in situations where very little is familiar. Problems are increasingly vague, complex, future-oriented, and not amenable to known solutions. Hence, the focus on "Q" learning.

MiL runs a variety of different Action Learning programs, each of which is typically designed for 15-20 persons: their original multi-company program as well as programs designed around special target groups (members from the same company, a partnership of several companies, senior executives) or special themes (international focus, service orientation). Programs run for about 40 days over a six to nine month time frame. Each program has three main components: project work (20 days), seminars (20 days), and back-home experience. The projects are the heart of the program. Participants work in teams of three to five people on a real problem (preferably in a company, or part of the company, other than their own). Problems are selected because they are complex, have systems implications, and are not merely puzzles with a correct answers. Project hosts, who own the problem and have a stake in its solution, work with each team. Project experience runs parallel to seminars that are used to address concerns that arise during the projects. Issues that arise back-home and on-the-job are also addressed since these real concerns faced by managers in their daily work often surface in the project work.

The Research

My research was qualitative, descriptive, and exploratory, using open-ended interviews and observation. I asked for "stories" of what people did in the program and how they manage differently after the program in order to find out what was important to the interviewees, and to ground the findings as much as possible in what people do rather than what they say they do. I interviewed a total of 36 people in three phases, with the help of a Swedish research assistant. In addition, I talked with staff informally, watched them in operation, and observed sessions in three different MiL programs: the opening day of a Swedish MiL program, the middle "project revision" sessions of an internal program, and the closing day of a shorter program for senior executives.

Of the twenty-one managers interviewed, only three were women. This is fairly representative since few women in Sweden hold senior management positions. Nine of the group were in their thirties, seven in their forties, and five over fifty years of age. Six had participated in multi-company Swedish MiL programs, one in an international program, three in the Senior MiL program, two in some kind of partnership program, and the remainder in one of three internal programs (a shipping company, a power company, and a bank). All staff members interviewed were male, which is also representative for this group. Most staff members worked part time with MiL, since this is how MiL operates, and work as well either at the University or in consulting groups. Staff were professionally trained in different disciplines, most commonly in psychology, organization development or business, but also in professions such as medicine or law. Some staff were participants in early programs, and began working as project advisors after leaving their companies.

In the research I tried to understand how Action Learning was reflective of a new paradigm for workplace learning. As part of this focus, I was interested in whether or not the program was transformative, and if so, in what ways. I believe that Action Learning does not just "add" knowledge and skills to those already possessed by managers, but that it enables managers to see themselves in a fundamentally different way than usual and to recast their vision of their role in their companies and the world. I drew on Mezirow (1985), who suggests that people organize learning through meaning schemes. Meaning schemes are "sets of related expectations governing cause-effect relationships" that "guide the way in which we experience, feel, understand, judge and act upon our situation" (pp. 21-22). Mezirow indicates that people can learn within the same meaning scheme, learn new meaning schemes, or transform their meaning schemes. In the latter, a person achieves a higher-order schema for organizing their perceptions of reality that Mezirow calls perspective transformation.

Findings: New Paradigms for Workplace Learning

Learning from Experience

In the past, people who learned from experience came primarily from the shop floor. White collar workers learned in the classroom. However, as ambiguity replaces the "one right answer," employees at all levels must learn on-the-job. Studies show that managers learn more from challenging job assignments , colleagues and personal hardships than formal training (McCall, Jr., Lombardo, Morrison, 1988). However, there are few systems in place that reduce the high trial-and-error rate that often accompanies these efforts.

Learning from experience in Action Learning programs is different from the kind of experiential learning advocated by Kolb (1984) and others as a method for facilitating classroom learning. I define learning from experience as the way in which people make sense of situations they encounter in their daily lives. I draw on action science (*e.g.*, Argyris & Schön, 1974, 1978) as a model to understand how this takes place. Action scientists focus on problems, but emphasize the way in which problems are framed, not just the way they are solved, as well as solutions to gaps that occur between what we set out to achieve (our espoused theory) and what we actually achieve (our theories-in-use).

Action Learning also emphasizes the way in which managers frame problems and the many errors that occur in implementation of solutions. In projects, problems are always reformulated. Problems initially sound rather "technical" in nature, but managers find the real problem usually involves people's perceptions, power politics, or other "soft" issues. For example, the top level managers of a consumer cooperative wanted the project team to look at policies and procedures for decentralization. As the team investigated the situation, these top managers said that their store managers did not have the courage to implement the policy. The project team helped the store managers experiment with new procedures, such as selling products made by competitors, which stirred things up and revealed that the top level managers did not want to relinquish power and control. Project teams get actively involved in testing the hypotheses they and the project host generates about what the real problem is or how it might be solved, typically through a kind of process consultation to the organization that "owns" the problem. The project team then reflects on the information it gathers, as well as on the way in which they are going about their own learning. They thus make explicit many of the personally-held theories or hunches that often remain implicit and determine whether or not they are accurate through the critical examination of their team.

Trial-and-error can be very expensive for both the individual and the organization when it does not succeed. Action Learning provides a forum to help people develop the kinds of skills that will help them long after the program is finished to make the most of future challenges for which there are no clear, easy, or "right" answers. Some of these skills include active listening, non-evaluative interviewing, using balanced judgment in decision-making, risk taking, giving and receiving feedback, networking across functions, crossing boundaries, negotiating and contracting, seeing a situation from multiple viewpoints, checking out one's perception of another person's assumptions, and asking the right questions. Participants in a program perceive the relevance of learning these skills because they need them to work on the project problem, as in real life.

Integrated Learning

If there is one word that could sum up the experience of learning in the MiL model, it would be "integrated." Integration is achieved in several ways. Task-oriented learning is integrated with learning about work in groups and learning about oneself. Personal and professional development is integrated. And action is integrated with reflection. These three dimensions are elaborated below.

In Action Learning, the starting point for learning is a particular task or problem. However, as the problem is solved, the learner comes to understand how his or her actions are rooted in personal beliefs and the norms of the groups in which he or she functions. Managers examine these beliefs as well as problems that come up through their interaction with one another in groups and teams. Managers consistently indicated that their deepest learnings resulted from extensive, data-based feedback that they otherwise would not have received from colleagues. A personal development week, positioned in the middle of the program, was rated very highly for the same reason. By the time managers entered into this personal development week, they had built relationships with others in the program and had a wealth of experience to further examine. Usually led by a psychologist using Transactional Analysis, the week enabled them to gain further personal insights about themselves as people and managers.

Personal and professional development are thus not seen as separate phenomena because one's effectiveness as a person is integral to many jobs in which human interaction is involved. The individual manager is always looked at as an integral part of several groups: his or her family, the project group and other groups created in the program, natural work groups back on-the-job, the company and the total environment. What he or she learns to do in one of these groups will have a bearing on how relationships are handled in other groups.

It is in this context that transformation is relevant. It is difficult to separate who a manager is from what a manager does. Yet many training programs in the United States focus primarily on skill development as if it were possible to develop skills "objectively" in the absence of *personal* development. I cannot generalize about the large-scale success of Action Learning as a means for transformation, particularly with such a small sample. "Best case" examples, however, indicate that managers see themselves differently as a result of these programs. Transformation is dependent on an ability to be critically reflective about personal, organizational, and socio-cultural norms that have been unthinkingly internalized. The program helps managers get beyond the blinders they typically wear, challenge assumptions, and see things from different perspectives.

Finally, action is integrated with reflection. Participants are not encouraged to write thick reports about the problem, but they are asked to think together and then take some action to explore the problem further. They bring this back to their group and reflect on it, and then take the next action step. The cycle is continuous over the life of the project. In this way, boundaries are eliminated between those who think and those who do. This is basically an action research strategy, but more emphasis is placed on peers learning from one another than their learning from and with an outside consultant who may be an "expert."

Building a Learning Community

Project work in the MiL program emphasizes team work and shared decision making. It is not surprising, then, that a number of managers indicated they learned to work more in this way when back on-the-job. One manager, for example, said that his "view turned more from a management specialist toward a leadership model . . . (where you develop) goals . . . together with the involved parties and see to it they are motivated enough to go along with your plans. It's more like a team leader really working on the personal motivation of every individual - that is the key to success." Another manager gave some examples of things he handled differently by trying "to get it done by other people" instead of just acting on his own "very strong feeling for what I believe is right and wrong." In one situation, where his company was establishing a new market for a product in another country, for example, he got "the cost analysis . . . done by the one who's going to have to deal with this business later on." Before the program, he felt he "would have demanded to have the cost analysis detailed and on my desk, and then I would have phoned down and told him that this is the price you are going to pay." He realized that "it takes more time, but I believe the end result is better. Because then . . . if there are problems, . . . then he can deal with it. If I am dealing with it directly, then, I'm not going to be aware of the problems . . . ."

Action Learning programs take place over time, as does learning on-the-job. As such, these programs allow for the natural frustration that takes place when one is dealing with ambiguous problems that do not have easy solutions or clearly-recognized plateaus of achievement. Participants, in fact, indicate that many of them are willing to quit about halfway through the program. The skill of the facilitator and the encouragement of peers are needed to hang in when answers do not come quickly. Ultimately, the pieces of the picture fall into place and participants break through to a higher level of understanding. Participants thus understand what it means to be a member of a learning community that builds up over time. This is a valuable insight for most managers who must create a similar learning community with members of their own staffs to tackle the difficult issues that are emerging in a changing environment. By watching the facilitators in the program, who become role models, participants learn how to help people learn.

Conclusion

In summary, Action Learning programs illustrate a new, non-behaviorist paradigm for workplace learning. Even though this research has been conducted in Sweden, many companies in the United States are experimenting with new learning strategies. Behaviorist training still has a role to play, particularly in situations where there is a clear right answer, but other models are needed under conditions of ambiguity and change in which judgment is more important than predefined answers. Characteristics of a non-behaviorist paradigm include more emphasis on learning from experience outside the classroom, emphasis on problem framing as well as problem solving, linking personal development and self-insight with task-related learning, recognition of the role that groups play in individual learning within organizations because of the collective nature of this endeavor, and recognition of a need to build a learning community.

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A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF PARENTS' PARTICIPATION IN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM ON THEIR CHILDREN'S COMPLETION OF HIGH SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between parent participation in an adult basic education program and the retention of secondary children who are considered "at risk" of dropping out of school. The study was conducted in a small rural area of Illinois, the only school district we could find that would give us access to the school records which we found were incomplete and therefore made it difficult for us to address all three research questions equally.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The senior presenter has tried to study this research topic on three other occasions over a period of ten years and failed because of lack of cooperation from school systems or individuals. Finally, a doctoral student, my co-presenter Natalie Williams, found a school district in a rural downstate community that was willing to let us have access to their hand tallied, incomplete records to address the research questions. She was very interested in this topic because many of her students indicated the major reason for enrolling in adult basic education was to assist children with school work. Three major research questions were addressed. First, what is the relationship between parents' completion of high school and their children's completion of high school? Second, what is the relationship between a parent's participation in an adult basic education program and a child's completion of high school? Third, what is the relationship between a parents participation in an adult basic education program and a high risk child's completion of high school?

The Kenan project found millions of American parents, many just teenagers, do not have a high school education or the basic skills to find a job. In addition to being poor and unemployed, these parents do not introduce early learning and literacy into their home lives. Therefore, their children, limited by their parents' disadvantages, start school with several strikes against them. These children are more likely to drop out and extend the cycle of illiteracy and poverty into the next generation. Past research has already demonstrated a high correlation between high school drop outs and welfare recipients. However, no empirical studies have been conducted to determine if parent participation in adult education might encourage children to stay in school and thus help break the welfare cycle.

We felt this research was important because the relationship between parents' participation in adult education and their children's completion of high school, or specifically of parent participation in an adult basic education program and their high risk child's completion of high school has not been studied before. Wehlage and Rutter write, "...serious economic and social consequences will result for those who fail to obtain a high school diploma. Moreover, the civic and economic welfare of the nation is dependent on a universally high level of education attainment." (page 70, Natriello, 1987). They continue, "Previously the labor market was able to absorb most of those with a limited education, but increasingly the lack of a high school diploma is tantamount to a denial of employment." Finally if one accepts the cyclic nature of poverty and the role education can play in either continuing or ending that cycle, then this research takes on an added degree of importance. First, it is necessary to discover if there is a relationship between parents' participation in an adult education program and their children's completion of high school before exploring the potential of adult basic education programs breaking the cycle of poverty and welfare.

METHODOLOGY

This was an ex post facto descriptive study of the parents of high school students enrolled in one of four chosen high schools as freshmen in 1982 to 1984. The first step in the study was to validate the at risk categories that were selected because of their promenance in the pertinent literature with appropriate regional superintendents of schools and with each of the four high school principals and their guidance counselors. A group discussion was held with adult education instructors from this area to evaluate the at risk categories.

In order to answer the first and second major research questions (What is the relationship between a parent's completing high school and their child completing high school? and What is the relationship between a parent's participation in an adult basic education program and their child's completion of high school?)

the following procedure was followed. First, all parents were randomly assigned to one of two groups. Then their child's permanent record was used to classify their child into one of two subgroups - graduates or non-graduates.

Those students who have graduated from high school were further classified into one of three groups. First, those graduates whose parents were also graduates of high school. Second, those graduates whose parents are non-graduates and did not participate in an adult basic education program. Third, those graduates whose parents were non-graduates and did participate in an adult basic education program can be determined by first matching the parent's name to the midterm attendance roster of the community college, which is the only adult education agency in the county, dating back to 1980.

The high school student who were non-graduates were further classified in one of three groups. First, those non-graduates whose parents were graduates. Second, non-graduates whose parents were also non-graduates, and did not participate in an adult basic education program. And third, those non-graduates whose parents were also non-graduates and did participate in an adult basic education program.

In summary, each of the random groups were divided into two groups which were further divided into two subgroups. These groups were divided into three sections yielding six categories between the subgroups. 1) Graduates whose parent's were also graduates; 2) graduates whose parents were non-graduates and did not participate in an adult basic education program; 3) graduates whose parents were non-graduates but whose parents participated in an adult basic education program; 4) non-graduates whose parents were graduates; 5) non-graduates whose parents were non-graduates and did not participate in an adult basic education program; and 6) non-graduates whose parents were non-graduates and did participate in an adult basic education program. The data collected from the six categories was compared between groups.

The third research question (What is the relationship between a parent's participation in an adult basic education program and a high risk student's completion of high school?) was studied by examining the student's permanent school record and further dividing each of the six categories into two subcategories - students classified as being high risk and students classified as not being high risk. Those students who are classified as high risk students were further divided into four at risk classifications: 1) economically disadvantaged, 2) academically deficient, 3) poor attendance pattern, and 4) behavior problems.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA

The methods used were subjected to the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board approval process. The information to answer the research questions previously stated was gathered from students' permanent school records and where applicable from community college registration information. The original plan called for no direct contact with subjects. However, the findings caused us to add a qualitative dimension that will be reported at the AERC Conference.

The findings will be addressed for each research question.

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between a child's completion of high school and his or her parent's completion of high school?

The data from this research question provided problems for the investigators. The findings had to be limited to only high school completors due to the school's abbreviated parental information sheet for non-graduates which did not include information on a parent's level of educational attainment.

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between an at risk student and completion of high school?

Of the 373 students, 325 graduated and 48 dropped out resulting in a dropout rate of 12.9%. Of the 373 students, 175 were classified as at risk in at least one category. At risk was defined as meeting at least one of the following criteria in the two categories of academically at risk and poor attendance pattern: -academically at risk- 1) a grade point average of 1.59 or below, 2) failed two or more classes, 3) retained in grade school, 4) placed in special education classes, or -poor attendance pattern- having missed more than 10% of the days for which a student was enrolled. Some students were classified as at risk based on an attendance pattern from grade school records.

Of the 325 graduates, 41.6% (135) were classified at risk category in one category compared to the 48 students who dropped out 87.5% (42) were classified as at risk in one category. Of the graduates, 10.7% (35) were classified in both at risk categories, while 60.4% (29) of the dropouts were in both at risk categories. Four of the students who dropped out were only classified as poor attenders, while nine of the students who dropped out attended regularly, but were classified as academically at risk. Six of the students who dropped out were not classified as at risk.

In terms of grade point average, the graduates' average grade point was 2.734038 while the dropouts average grade point was 1.5825 a full grade point below that of high school completors.

CONCLUSIONS

In at least the areas of poor attendance and academic difficulty there appears to be a relationship between the completion of high school and classification of a student as at risk. It appears that dropouts are six times more likely to be classified in both at risk categories than graduates.

In answer to the question, is there a relationship between a parent's participation in an adult education program and his or her child's completion of high school, we found the following: Only eight parents had participated in an adult basic education program. Due to this small number, a conclusion could not be made except that only a few people enroll in ABE. Alternative qualitative research methods are being considered to address this question by the time of the presentation.

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ASSESSING THE RELEVANCE OF SELECTED LEARNING OBJECTIVES TO ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE IN TANZANIA*

Albert C. Mgulambwa**

Abstract: The in-service Diploma Course of the Institute of Adult Education, Dar es Salaam, lacks student input. Using a questionnaire to 117 respondents and group interviews, this study created a data base of how current students and 1988 graduates perceived the extent to which selected learning objectives were relevant to their job responsibilities.

Statement of the Problem

The Institute of Adult Education, Dar es Salaam, began offering a Diploma Course in adult education in July, 1969. This professional training was in response to a need for such personnel to work in the country's many and varied expanding adult education programs. The Diploma Course is an in-service one and is "designed to give an intensive professional training to personnel already engaged in the field of adult education in one way or another" (Institute of Adult Education, 1984, p. 2). Thus, diploma students have some experiences related to the different duties and functions related to an adult educator in Tanzania.

Since its inception, Diploma Course learning objectives and course outlines have been developed and revised by subject specialists. This means that such learning objectives and training activities have been designed based on (a) specialists' expertise, insight, and perceptions, (b) perceived societal values and needs, and (c) broad goals and objectives of the Institute of Adult Education, itself. Records and experience indicate that neither the diploma students, themselves, nor their representatives have ever been formally involved in formulating or revising the learning objectives and course outlines. Therefore, Diploma Course programs lack student input as suggested by Benne (1955), Knowles (1980), and Thiede (1964).

Additionally, in the history of the Diploma Course, only one study has been conducted involving Institute graduates. This study investigated graduates of the Diploma Course who had studied in the second and third years of its existence (Kassam, 1973). Kassam also assessed "the usefulness of the Diploma Course as a whole in relation to their respective and actual functions in the field" (p. 8). The course was seen as useful although it is difficult to know the extent to which its results have been used in developing and revising the Diploma Course.

Furthermore, Kassam's study was done more than 15 years ago. The Diploma Course has been revised twice since (and not necessarily because of) his study -- in 1977 and again in 1983.

Based on a lack of student input and the fact that no major study involving the students with regard to their learning objectives has been done for more than 15 years, it was not known the extent to which current learning objectives were relevant to current students' job responsibilities. Therefore, the overall purpose of the study was to create a data base of how experienced adult educators (current diploma students and those who graduated in 1988) perceived the extent to which selected learning objectives were relevant for their job responsibilities.

Specifically, this paper has three objectives:

1. Indicate how all respondents, irrespective of their years of study, perceived the extent to which selected learning objectives were relevant for their job responsibilities.

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*This paper is based on data collected for an Adult Education doctoral dissertation in progress at Syracuse University.

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2. Indicate which of 40 learning objectives were ranked as the top 10 and which were ranked as the lowest 10.

3. Present new learning objectives and study areas suggested by respondents as relevant for their job responsibilities.

Methodology

The research population comprised all the current First and Second Year diploma students of the Institute. Included also were the 1988 diploma graduates. Prior to their admission, diploma students and graduates were of two basic categories: (a) local or middle level adult education administrators, tutors, or teachers; (b) training officers or workers education officers in industries, or parastatal organizations. Because the participants were experienced in adult education in one way or another, it was believed they could evaluate learning objectives in relation to their job responsibilities.

The principal instrument was a questionnaire. This device contained 40 selected learning objectives which respondents were asked to rate in terms of relevancy for their job responsibilities. The objectives were selected from the Institute's Diploma Course Syllabus and adult education literature related to this study. Of the 40 learning objectives, 11 were derived directly from the syllabus, 8 came from the literature, and 21 were synthesized from both the syllabus and the literature. A four-point Likert Scale was used for evaluation purposes: 1 - Not Relevant, 2 - Somewhat Relevant, 3 - Quite Relevant, and 4 - Highly Relevant.

To supplement questionnaire data, interviews were conducted in six groups of 8 to 13 randomly selected diploma students and graduates. Two groups represented each year of study. The interview's main purpose was to generate a clearer understanding of questionnaire data and to ascertain ideas for new learning objectives. These interviews were unstructured, conducted informally, and involved discussion and brainstorming.

Description of the Data

The Respondents

The questionnaire was administered to 117 respondents, including 88 current diploma students and 29 diploma graduates of 1988. One questionnaire was incorrectly filled out and was not included in the data analysis efforts.

With regard to interviews, two groups of 15 diploma students and graduates were randomly selected to represent their respective years of study. Therefore, there were 90 students and graduates who were expected to attend the interviews. In reality, 62 out of 90 (68.9%) respondents attended their respective group sessions.

Seventy-eight of the respondents were male (68.4%) and 36 were female (31.6%). Two respondents did not indicate their gender. Regarding the highest level of education prior to admission, three had completed eight years of primary education while two had attended two years of secondary education. The majority, 99, had four years of secondary education, with seven of these obtaining their education through private study and sitting for the National Form Four Examination. Eleven had obtained six years of secondary education, 10 of them by studying privately. One of the respondents was a University degree holder. The degree was not specified.

With regard to their main job responsibility, 67 respondents (58.3%) said it was teaching. They had taught in such institutions as primary schools, secondary schools, and teacher training colleges. Forty-eight respondents were administrators. One respondent did not indicate his or her main job responsibility. The average age was 36.45 years with a standard deviation of 4.64. The oldest respondent was 48 years old and the youngest was 28.

The mean number of years in the last job position was 8.52 with a minimum value of .5 years and a maximum of 21 years. Work experience since leaving school or since pre-service training ranged between .5 and 26 years, with a mean of 13.5 years. However, the minimum number of years reported in their last job position and in years of work experience, should be taken with caution. Some of these are values indicated by graduates who had just gone into the field and did not include prior work experience, as all applicants are required to have work experience of three years prior to their admission to the Diploma Course.

On whether or not they had taught or administered adult education classes or programs, 109 respondents (95.6%) responded in the affirmative. Only five said they had not taught nor administered an adult education class or program. Two respondents did not respond to this item.

Learning Objectives

The average score for all 40 variables combined is 3.28 with a standard deviation of 0.19. These results indicate that learning objectives were overall relevant for respondents' job responsibilities. This relatively high score and small standard deviation presents difficulties for interpreting the results. Rankings presented in the next two sections help in the overall interpretation. It seems clear, though, that nearly all objectives should be examined for future curricular changes.

The ten top ranked learning objectives include only two which were derived from the Institute's course syllabus. Among these ten, the learning objective with the highest score was to "describe the importance of literacy to national development." This is a reflection of the nation's emphasis on functional literacy programs which are believed to promote social, economic, political, and cultural development at individual, community, and national levels. This belief of the role of adult education in national development is also reflected among other ten top ranked objectives. Some are related to the psychology of adult learning and how to teach adults. Most are practically oriented, and therefore easier for respondents to perceive their relevance. These ten top ranked objectives are presented in Table 1 (see attachment).

The ten learning objectives ranked the lowest are presented in Table 2 (see attachment). Most of these learning objectives are theoretically oriented and their application cannot be as easily perceived. Others are new to Tanzanian educators. For example, "help adults evaluate their own learning" is new and may have presented difficulties to respondents in their perceiving its relevance. "Apply the principles of curriculum development" also could have been interpreted as belonging to school curriculum developers more than to adult educators. It was also difficult for the respondents to perceive a comparison of adult education in selected countries as being relevant to their environment.

Suggestions for New Objectives and Study Areas

The interviews generated several ideas for new learning objectives and/or study topics. They are worth noting for future planning by Institute officials. These include the following:

1. How to gather information and prepare it for Zonal Adult Education Newspapers which are produced monthly in order to promote reading habits and maintain reading skills among new literates.
2. Objectives that concern women's activities in the community and in adult education in particular.
3. Higher academic studies should be included so as to enable Diploma graduates to teach others.
4. Topics related to the role of Folk Development Colleges (another institutional form of adult education).
5. How to develop project proposals for supplemental funding.
6. Knowledge of basic accounting procedures, to enable Diploma graduates to implement their responsibilities related to financial matters.

Conclusions

In general, diploma students and graduates have indicated that the selected learning objectives are relevant to their job responsibilities. However, ranking the objectives has provided a way of comparing them in terms of the level of perceived relevancy. It is interesting to note that in the top 10 learning objectives, only two are explicitly those of the Institute; and in the last 10, six learning objectives (more than half) are those of the Institute. In addition, the interviews generated at least six new learning objectives or topics that should be considered by the Institute of Adult Education.

These results provide serious implications for the Institute in terms of needed future changes. Some objectives will need to be made more relevant. The Institute also will need to consider including learning objectives which came solely from the literature but were rated highly relevant. Furthermore, the suggested new learning objectives need to be considered for inclusion in the Diploma Course Syllabus.

Although respondents have perceived the learning objectives to be relevant for their job responsibilities, there is still room for improvement. For future plans, the Institute needs to include such topics as principles of curriculum development, which are important in designing adult education programs, and evaluation procedures, particularly on how to help adult learners evaluate their own learning. Diploma students should, themselves, be given an opportunity to evaluate their own learning.

The Institute should also review some of its current content and procedures so as to make the lowest ranked learning objectives become more relevant to adult educators. For example, making local materials for teaching and learning situations might be perceived as highly relevant if appropriate development skills also are taught. The Institute should provide the facilities and the skills to enable the students to develop such skills. Presentations on experiences from other countries should be stimulating and interesting. Their relevance though, would depend on what is being compared and how it is presented. The Institute should review the current topics in comparative adult education and identify only those that seem to be more relevant to the Tanzanian situation. Additional ideas and country-wide adult education implications will be presented during the AERC presentation.

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Table 1

Learning Objectives With Highest Rating

(Key: I=Institute's Syllabus; L=Literature; B=Both, Institute's Syllabus & Literature)

Rank	Objective	Source	N	Mean	St. dev.
1	Describe the importance of literacy to national development.	I	116	3.64	0.68
2	Relate an adult education program to the needs of adults.	B	116	3.56	0.71
3	Recognize characteristics of adult learners.	B	116	3.55	0.69
4	Apply methods used in teaching adults.	B	116	3.51	0.67
5	Apply psychological concepts to adult education.	B	114	3.50	0.71
6	Identify basic needs that make adults participate in educational programs	B	116	3.49	0.74
7	Understand the philosophy of adult education.	B	115	3.48	0.65
8.5	Recognize the role of adult education in society	B	116	3.47	0.75
8.5	Utilize good communication skills as an adult educator.	B	116	3.47	0.69
10	Recognize various problems that Tanzania is facing in her development endeavors	I	115	3.45	0.80

Numbers less than 116 were due to nonresponses.

Table 2

Learning Objectives With Lowest Ratings

(Key: I=Institute's Syllabus; L=Literature; B=Both, Institute's Syllabus & Literature)

Rank	Objective	Source	N	Mean	St. dev.
31	Discuss general theories of development and underdevelopment.	I	116	3.12	0.79
32	Recognize the process of adult development in relation to learning.	B	113	3.10	0.78
33	Help adults evaluate their own learning	L	115	3.09	0.94
34	Describe the historical developments of rural Tanzania.	I	115	3.06	0.84
35	Provide career counselling in workers education	I	116	3.06	0.91
36	Calculate basic research statistics.	B	115	3.05	0.87
37	Apply the principles of curriculum development.	L	115	3.04	0.85
38	Inspire action related to community improvement	I	111	3.02	0.71
39	Make local materials for teaching and learning situations	I	116	3.00	0.92
40	Compare the development of adult education in selected countries throughout the world.	I	115	2.86	0.94

Numbers less than 116 were due to nonresponses.

A TYPOLOGY OF EDUCATOR-LEARNER RELATIONSHIPS IN OPEN LEARNING PROGRAMS

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Abstract: This study developed a typology of educator-learner relationships in open learning programs which includes in one framework the variety of distance as well as intramural modes of adult education.

Introduction

Statement of the problem: Open learning typically exists in a context that offers a variety of educational opportunities. Distance education courses play a complex and valuable role in mixed systems of formal, non-formal and informal education which promote lifelong learning. As delivery of course materials by mail, television, audio tape and computer is integrated with intramural modes of education to create systems of open learning, the variety of possible forms of educational experiences increases dramatically.

How can we classify, in a way that is useful for research, the complex activities we lump together as open learning?

Background to the problem: The usual approach is to characterize open learning courses by the media employed to deliver them, by their content, by the institutions with which they originate, or by the student group to whom they are directed. Such categories may be helpful for some purposes, but these descriptions establish order at the cost of further fragmentation. We need to unify our understanding of open learning and link it to traditional forms of education.

If education occurs within a culture and involves a "dialogue"--implicit or explicit--between an educator and a learner, then the character of the educator-learner relationship provides one means of categorizing any educational experience.

Theoretical framework: The theoretical and practical starting point for the research was Moore's (1983) typology of distance education programs. Moore's typology grew out of work that he began with Wedemeyer in 1970. Moore approached a theory of "telemathic" or distance teaching by categorizing types of independent study programs along the dimensions of distance and learner autonomy. While this went a long way towards sorting distance education courses on the basis of the educator-learner relationship, many researchers have pointed to problems with the concept of learner autonomy or independence (e.g., Willen & Bartels, 1985; Garrison & Baynton, 1987; Burge, 1988). It sets unrealistic standards for many learners; it ignores possible gender and cultural differences of values associated with the relationship between the individual and others; and, it is hard to find courses that really do allow learner autonomy. Moore's positioning of the educator-learner relationship in the context of the course of study has parsimony, but at the cost of explanatory power when it comes to ignoring personal and societal factors that influence educational outcomes. In reality, the educator-learner relationship is located within a cultural or societal context.

Method

I delineated the relationships between open learning, distance education, and traditional forms of education before analyzing educator-learner relationships across all these modes. Being convinced of the centrality of the educator-learner relationship to education, I reviewed literature that offered a theoretical or conceptual approach to distance education, open learning and adult education to discover what had been said about educator-learner relationships. For example, Houle's (1982) eleven categories for adult education teaching can all be found within the field of distance education and open learning. However, because distance was always mentioned as part of the definition of distance education, and it seems an accurate way to differentiate among various kinds of educational programs, I retained Moore's concept of distance as the first dimension of my typology. Coming up with the second dimension was difficult. I eventually modified Garrison & Baynton's (1987) concept of control to include ideas from other researchers (especially Herrmann, 1988) and used that as my second dimension. Finally, I critiqued my analysis, evaluated the resultant typology, and made suggestions for further research.

Results

The results of this study fall into two sections. The first result is an expanded definition of open learning. The second result is the typology of educator-learner relationships in open learning programs.

1. Open Learning.

Open learning systems serve the needs of learners by removing barriers to the integration of educational activities throughout a person's lifetime and across a variety of settings. The goal of open learning is to provide access to academic, professional, vocational, technical, or general-interest education at a time, pace and place which accommodates the learner.

Evolution of the educator-learner relationship in open learning: Historically, traditional education has been teacher-controlled and attached to a specific geographic location. It provided for the student's educational needs through the local state or church school, and in return gave the institution "ownership" of the learner and of certain land-based tax revenues derived from the learner's parish or territory. This model is derived from the feudal notion of the hierarchical relationship between God and man, seen reflected in the relationship between king and subject, lord and land-holder, husband and wife, father and son. This concept elevated the educator as the powerful one who knows above the student, the one who does not know and is thus subservient. Educators determined who could enroll in their institutions, what subjects students would study, and by what criteria their learning would be measured. Open learning entails a reconceptualization of the historical educator-learner relationship to make it less feudal and hierarchical as well as a detachment of education from its association with a fixed place.

The movement toward open learning can be shown on orthogonal axes of "face-to-face" <--> "mediated communication" and "location fixed" <--> "location free." Figure 1 evolves from Farrell & Pacey's (1987) paradigm in which they used a vertical axis of "teacher dependent" <--> "teacher independent" which I find inaccurate.

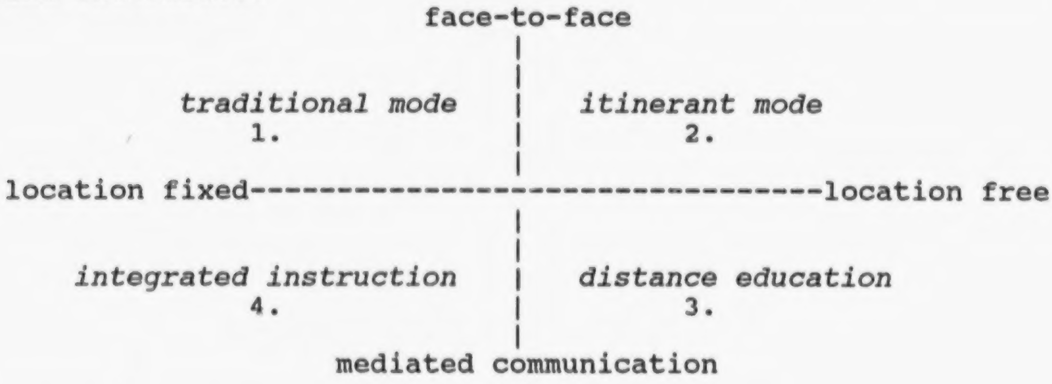

Figure 1: Approaching an open learning system.

The traditional mode, characteristic of schools and most universities, occupies the first quadrant.

The itinerant mode, in the second quadrant, occurs when institution offer face-to-face extension programs at sites distant from their home campus.

Distance education, in the third quadrant, came into being after postal systems provided a reliable exchange of correspondence. Its growth is linked to advances in communications technology and increasing demand for educational opportunities by adult learners.

Integrated instruction, in the fourth quadrant, emerged as learning centers were established with a mix of educational resources: face-to-face tutors with distance education course packages, or group teleconferencing with independent study.

All four quadrants are represented in an open learning system, and students may move from one mode to another as they build a lifelong education across formal, non-formal and informal academic, professional, vocational, or general interest programming. A typology of educator-learner relationships in open learning programs thus must fit with and include relationships in all four modes.

2. The Typology

Moore's typology:

> What makes a program more distant than another, making one program of instruction more telemathic than another, is a function of two variables in the learner-teacher relationship, which are the extent of dialogue in their communication, and the extent of structure in the teaching program. (Moore, 1983, pp. 79-80)

Dialogue and structure thus became the dimension of distance in Moore's typology. His second dimension was learner autonomy.

> Autonomy is the extent to which the learner in an educational program is able to determine the selection of objectives, resources and procedures, and the evaluation design. (Moore, 1983, p. 82)

Moore goes on to discuss instrumental and emotional independence--instrumental, meaning "conducting activities and coping with problems without seeking help," and emotional independence meaning "the absence of needs for reassurance, affection, or approval in particular situations" (p. 85). The idea of learner independence has been tossed around in adult education literature in debates about andragogy. It is safe to say that many educators have taken exception to it as a common goal for adult education. Willen & Bartels (1985) compared distance education students in contrasting systems in Sweden and Germany on the question of what kind of support was most important to them. Their findings dispute Moore's belief in the independent learner.

> Most of the distance students need a well-functioning feed-back system, which can involve a lot of different components, but personal contact with the teacher/s and the written material seem to be the most important components. (p. 18)

Modifying Moore's typology: The element of Moore's "learner autonomy" that is well-supported by the literature is its focus on the learner. Much has been written about learner-centred instruction. Can we keep this focus while avoiding the idea of learner independence or autonomy?

Garrison and Baynton (1988) try to do this with their concept of control. They identify three components of control from the learner's point of view: philosophical independence, psychological power, and structural support. By this they mean:

> To be fully in control of the learning process, the student must have the freedom to explore possible learning objectives, the power to handle a learning activity, and the support necessary to complete the educational experience. (p. 9)

While the general concept of *control* is useful, the components identified by Garrison and Baynton seem so broad that they become foggy. What might contribute to "psychological power," for instance? Does Garrison and Baynton's "structural support" refer to context? Their term seems related in part Moore's categories of dialogue and structure in the dimension of "distance."

The educator-learner relationship takes place in a societal or cultural, as well as a physical, context; that *context* will influence the relationship. One way of sharpening our focus on the contextual influence over a learner's sense of control would be to think in terms of *access*--access *to the resources necessary for learning*, and access *to opportunities for meaningful practice of the learning*.

Herrmann (1988) has a different angle on what is important to empower a student in any given context. He employs the processes of *socialization* and professionalization as conceptual frameworks for his examination of transitions in students' perceptions. His study suggests that a student's *socialization to* being a student and a student's professionalization, or socialization to a vocation, both have strong effects on the student's sense of control and comfort during the educator- learner relationship.

Another question has to do with how the educator-learner relationship nourishes those traits the student brings into it. Is a learner encouraged to think critically? Is a learner's motivation for study recognized and taken seriously? Does the educator-learner relationship help the student connect past experience to present content? In other words, is a learner enabled to use "philosophical freedom" or personal autonomy in thinking as an individual in the educational experience? Likewise, the learner will bring certain study skills: does the educator-learner relationship enhance these and give the learner opportunity to practice them and develop further study skills? Many educators have identified the importance of such things. This category in the educator-learner relationship could be called nurtured traits.

Putting all these elements together, we get a typology of educator-learner relationships that includes the following:

DISTANCE (DIST)
    *dialogue (DI)
    *structure (ST)
CONTROL (CONT)
    *context (CO)
        >access (AC)
        --> to resources for learning (*acre*)
        --> to activities in which the learning has meaning (*acme*)
        >socialization (SO)
        --> as a student (*sost*)
        --> to a vocation (*sovo*)
    *nurtured traits (NT)
        >autonomy (AU)
        >study skills (SK)

Plotted as a cube with the dimension of distance composed of dialogue and structure, and that of control composed of context and nurtured traits, we get the following figure.

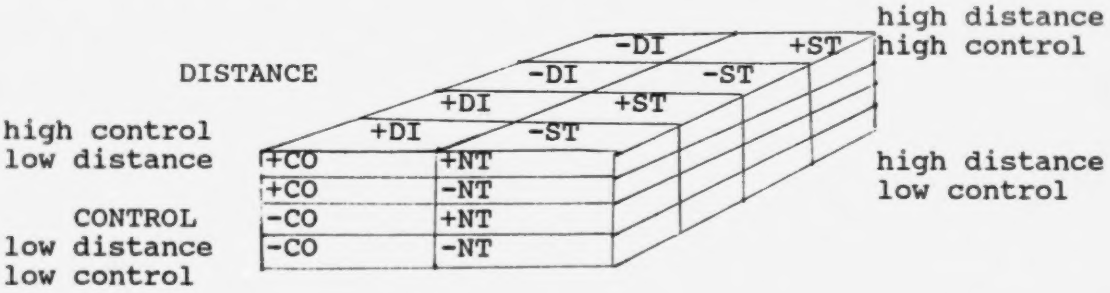

Figure 2. Typology of educator-learner relationships in open learning programs.

Conclusions

Several advantages adhere to the use of this typology for research in open learning. It has the possibility of breadth, so findings can be generalized. It deals with factors that can be manipulated by the educational institution, so findings could have practical application and could lead to improvements in conditions. It attempts to identify elements of the educational transaction which are particularly characteristic of distance education and open learning; thus, any clarification of these elements and their relationships through careful research could make a significant contribution to the development of theory in these fields.

Personalization may well turn out to be an umbrella variable related to all educator-learner relationships. Questions about control, manipulation and personalization--about the contextual fit between educator and learner, especially when the educator is an institution as it is in some forms of distance education--are not answered by the literature and deserve investigation.

The significance of this study is that it offers a heuristic device that enables researchers and practitioners to evaluate and analyze open learning in a way that recognizes the cultural and social context.

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A STUDY OF AGE, GENDER AND UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR AS PREDICTORS OF SUCCESS IN ADULT SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

In an increasingly interdependent world, factors which determine success in adult second language learning need to be identified. This study investigates the influence of age, undergraduate major and gender on rates of learning Spanish as a second language.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In today's competitive world markets mastery of a second and even a third language are important learning goals for adult as well as collegiate learners. This again pushes the question of undergraduate curriculum to center stage in terms of its usefulness in preparing adults for future life experiences. In this atmosphere, policy makers are again questioning the wisdom of undergraduate specialization following the professional school model as an adequate preparation for the kind of skills needed to live and work in a world economy (Boyer, 1987; Holmes Group, 1986; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Is the adult learner who has had a liberal arts or general studies background better equipped to learn a second language as an adult than the adult learner who has had a highly technical, specialized preparation?

The literature approaches the topic of adult second language learning by focusing on general adult learner characteristics such as self-direction (Wenden, 1981); learning style in terms of field dependence/independence (Chappelle & Roberts, 1986; Hansen & Stansfield, 1980). The former study credited FI scores with higher proficiency in second and foreign language achievement, although not necessarily in the area of communicative competence (Hansen & Stansfield, 1980). Kolb (1984) discussed learning styles following his own four-factor analysis of abstract vs. concrete and passive vs. active learning which formed four distinct learning styles. Although Kolb did not relate these styles to language learning per se, he did relate them to scientific and liberal arts majors. Liberal arts majors, according to Kolb would be divergent thinkers, while scientific majors would be convergent thinkers.

Other studies correlate adult second language achievement with greater amounts of prior schooling, better abstract reasoning, and more opportunities for application (d'Anglejan, Alison, & Renaude, 1985). Brown maintained that young adult learners from 19 to 23 years of age ask different types of questions than adult learners who are 55 or older. The former request more linguistic input and more lexical information while the latter ask more about grammar structures and reasons why certain teaching methodologies are used (Brown, 1983). Finally, a study which classifies young adults as those 17 to 24 and older adults as those age 25 to 41, concludes that achievement rate decreases with increasing age. The latter study defines second language achievement as aural comprehension (Seright, 1985).

METHODOLOGY

The research design used to conduct this investigation is best described as "ex-post-facto" defined by Kerlinger (1966) as "research in which the researcher starts with the observation of a dependent variable or variables. He then studies the independent variables in retrospect for their possible relations to the dependent variable or variables" (p. 360).

The subjects in this ex-post-facto inquiry were 208 trainees for the U.S. Peace Corps assigned to work in Honduras. They had all undergone 220 hours of intensive classroom instruction in Spanish during a 12-week period. The instructional method was audiolingual in an immersion environment. All trainees received virtually the same method of instruction, although, not all had identical teachers. Instructional group size varied between three to five trainees per instructor. Instructors were rotated every week. All instructors were native Spanish speakers from Honduras, Uruguay and Panama.

Measures of the dependent variable were pre and posttest scores on the Foreign Service Institute Exam administered by panels of Honduran native Spanish speakers trained and monitored by Educational Testing Service. The exam itself is a criteria referenced interview in which testees are required to communicate with the panel on predetermined types of questions. The FSI Test is scaled from 0 to 5. Each scale point is further discriminated by the use of "+". Thus the scale is categorical, rather than quantitative. A level 1 learner is one who can satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements. At level 2 the learner can satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements. At level 3 the learner is able to speak with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate in most formal and informal conversations. At level 4 the learner can use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs. At level 5 the learner matches the proficiency of an educated, native speaker. For the purposes of this study, the "+" designation was quantified by a decimal. Thus a score of "2+" was interpreted as "2.5". Examiners described the "plus" designation as a judgement that the testee was beyond a given level, but not quite at the successive level. This designation could be exemplified in the case of a testee who could use Spanish for the porposes of travel, and perhaps had a wider vocabulary, yet could not be judged to be competent at level 2.

Subjects were adult Spanish as a second langage learners from 20 to 69 years of age who had finished college (N=204) or who had demonstrated college equivalent expertise and training as a function of their former occupations (N=4). It should be pointed out that the four non-college graduates were older adults. The four non-college graduates had been employed in business, petroleum engineering and civil engineering; and were, consequently, equated with college graduates with technical majors. The majority of the subjects were in the traditional post baccalaureate category. One hundred and thirty-three subjects (133) were under 26; 75 were 26 years of age or older.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA

In the initial analysis of FSI scores by undergraduate major/occupational orientation, ten categories were used as seen in Table 1. These categories represented undergraduate majors with the exception of Rural Development, Nutrition, and Health Education - all three of which included trainees with undergraduate majors in Liberal Arts, Political Science, Sociology, and Home Economics. Other undergraduate majors corresponded to the ten categories. For example, every trainee included in the category Nursing was a four-year nursing major or a board certified RN. All trainees in the Education category were Education majors, etc. The ten categories listed in Table 1 were then collapsed into specialist and generalist categories as illustrated in Table 2. The five classifications marked with an asterisk were collapsed into a category called "Specialists," whereas the five classifications without asterisks made up the new category "Generalists."

Table 1

Distribution of Subjects by Undergraduate Major/Occupational Orientation

Occ. Orientation	Frequency	Percent
*Civil Engineer/Architecture	13	6.3
*Nursing	14	6.7
Rural Development	20	9.6
Nutrition	15	7.2
*Natural Resources	22	10.6
*Agriculture	35	16.8
Fisheries	7	3.4
Health Education	31	14.9
*Business	23	11.1
Education	28	13.5

Table 2

Comparison of Scores Between Specialists and Generalists

	N	Mean	Prob. T
Generalists	100	1.35	.7278
Specialists	108	1.3287	.7275

Using undergraduate major/occupational orientation as a source of possible variance in FSI scores, analysis of variance procedures were used to analyze the data. There was no difference between the FSI Test score gains between the various classifications of trainees except in the case of the Civil Engineer/Architect and the Nutritionists. A difference in mean scores between these two groups was .5872 which was significant at the $p<.05$ level.

The scores were then compared between the collapsed groups of Specialists and Generalist majors (Table 2). A comparison of the collapsed categories showed no difference at the $p<.05$ level. That is to say, the mean FSI Test scores of the generalists, although numerically greater, were not statistically different.

Using the T-test procedure, mean scores were compared between males and females (Table 3), as well as between those under 26 and those 26 years of age and over (Table 4). The differences were not judged to be statistically significant at the $p<.05$ level. However, the difference in mean scores of males and females was seen to be significant at the $p<.10$ level. At the $p<.10$ level males scored higher than females.

Table 3

Comparison of Mean Scores by Gender

Sex	N	Mean	T value	Prob. T
F	101	1.2823	-1.8251	.069
M	107	1.3925	-1.8228	.069

Table 4

Comparison of Mean Scores by Age Groups

Yrs	N	Mean	T value	Prob. T
20-25	133	1.3308	.3683	.7131
26-69	75	1.3533	.3545	.7234

Finally, a three way analysis of variance was done on the differences in FSI Test scores according to gender, age and generalist/specialist categories (Table 5). Although it was seen that those with the highest gains were younger adult males who were generalists in terms of academic majors, while those with the lowest scores were older females with technical academic majors, these differences were not significant at the $p<.05$ level.

Table 5

Comparison of Mean Scores by Gender, Age Groups, and Academic Specialization

Sex	Yrs	Academic	N	Score
F	26	Generalist	46	1.25
F	26	Specialist	24	1.31
F	25	Generalist	19	1.39
F	25	Specialist	12	1.16
M	26	Generalist	20	1.47
M	26	Specialist	43	1.36
M	25	Generalist	15	1.43
M	25	Specialist	29	1.36

The only difference in language learning gains, as measured by FSI test scores, was seen to be between Civil Engineers/Architects and Nutritionists, a difference significant at the $p<.05$ level. Differences in scores between generalists and specialists were not significant, nor was the difference between age groups at the $p<.05$ level. The difference in scores between males and females was significant at the $p<.10$ level.

CONCLUSIONS

Since the differences between individual majors did not hold up throughout the study, and because the differences between age groups did not prove to be significant, it can be concluded that no differences were observed between age groups or between generalist-specialist classifications. However, an interesting pattern can be seen in the data. The difference between Civil Engineers/Architects and Nutritionists could be the result of an interaction between gender and undergraduate major. It was seen that males scored higher than females ($p<.10$). An analysis of the Nutritionist and the Civil Engineering/Architect groups shows that the Nutritionist group was composed of females, while that of Civil Engineering/Architects was composed entirely of males. In other words, instead of being indicative of a generalist/specialist difference, the difference could be attributable equally to the differences in gender.

While Seright (1985) found that achievement rate in foreign language learning decreased with increasing age, the data of this study suggests the achievement rate remains the same.

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A Multiple Site Case Study to Identify Factors Contributing to the Termination of Consortia of Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

Intended to identify the factors leading to the termination of three higher education consortia, this case study resulted in the identification of nine common termination factors. Several recommendations are offered on how to avoid these pitfalls.

Statement of the Problem

The consortium has long been heralded as a way to manage higher education competition and channel it into positive results (Lancaster, 1969). The consortium has also been cited as leading to a more economic, efficient, and effective use of resources (Glazer, 1980). Hohman (1985,p. 75) described interorganizational collaboration in education as a "fact of life" which will become increasingly more common and essential. However, she comments that "until now, collaboration has been mostly a practical art, and relatively little systematic thought has been given to the best ways of achieving its intent."

A review of the literature on consortia of higher education institutions confirms Hohman's criticism. While there is much description, speculation, prescription, and exhortation, there is a noticeable lack of comprehensive, integrative studies or theory. In the most effective attempt at theory development, Beder (1984) posits four principles for successful collaboration. Those principles are: (1) reciprocity in benefit, (2) organizational openness to a wide range of environmental inputs, (3) development of an atmosphere of trust and commitment, and (4) compatible organizational structures.

An initial analysis of the consortium experience in the United States revealed that not only was there a lack of research but that the literature ignored the fact that one of every three consortia in existence or developed from 1973 to 1983 had ceased operations prior to 1984. These terminated consortia offered potential insights into the specific pitfalls to be avoided for successful consortium management.

With that potential in mind, this research project's purpose was to identify the factors that had led to the termination of selected consortia of higher education institutions. The study was conducted in the hope that the findings might help to avoid unnecessary consortium terminations. This could be accomplished through improved development of new consortia and better management of existing consortia.

Method

Review of the two major research paradigms resulted in the researcher's conclusion that the qualitative paradigm was most relevant to this study. This paradigm offered a means to conduct an inobtrusive study which captures people's knowledges and understandings regarding complex realities (Guba, 1978). It is particularly appropriate where there is no pre-existing research base (Borg and Gall, 1983). Within this paradigm, the case study methodology was selected because of its strength in examining a phenomenon in its real-life context (Yin, 1981).

Sample Case Selection

The case studied in this research was the consortia terminated between 1978 and 1983. Utilizing purposeful sampling which emphasizes selection based upon possession of specific characteristics (Patton, 1980), a set of sample selection criteria were developed as follow: selected consortia were in existence at least five years prior to termination, cooperated in academic programs designed for adults, reflected an assortment of institutional mixes, had financial support other than short-term grants, and had a unified central operation with a single director. Five terminated consortia met all selection criteria. Three of the five were selected for study with the remaining two serving as alternates. The three selected consortia were as follows:

Consortium A:	Consortium for Urban Education, (CUE) Indianapolis, Indiana.
Consortium B:	Rochester Regional Planning and Education Center Rochester, Minnesota.
Consortium C:	The University of Mid-America (UMA) Lincoln, Nebraska

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The techniques for data collection used in this study included those recommended by Merriam, (1984): observation, interview, and document analysis. The type of interview employed was the general interview based upon a generalized field guide (Yin, 1982).

The chief executive officer of each institution involved in the selected consortia was contacted by mail in order to begin the process of identifying primary actors in the decisions to terminate. Contact was then made with the identified respondents.

During visits to the locus of each consortium all available respondents were interviewed and documents were reviewed. In 17 days spent in the field, 50 face-to-face interviews were conducted. Ten primary actors in the termination decision who had left the consortium area were contacted and interviewed by telephone. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Notes were maintained during and after each interview, each day of interviewing, and each wave of data collection.

Date Analysis and Reporting

Categories were repeatedly refined as data analysis progressed. Eventually the analysis resulted in nine termination factors. Of particular interest were themes or factors common to two or more of the consortia.

The themes and factors were corroborated with persons interviewed at the case loci. Overall, there was agreement that the researcher had captured the essence of the three consortia.

Once these checks were made, an initial narrative report was presented to a panel of experts for their review. Selected for their national reputations and long-term involvement in interinstitutional collaboration, these experts responded that the nine termination factors were plausible and important.

Analysis of the Data

A separate report was developed for each consortium and each report represents a stand-alone study. Each report was organized around the common termination factors in order to stress the commonalities of the three consortia's experience. This report is on the cumulative cross-case analysis. Quotations from the confidential, tape recorded interviews are used in the report. The reader is advised that all quotations in this article which are not followed by a parenthetical citation were selected from these confidential interviews.

Termination Factors

There were eight major factors, as reported below, which were common to all three studied consortia. In addition, two consortia failed to gain community support.

Funding Policy The most immediate cause of termination at all three consortia was the loss of funding. The consortia were viewed by funding sources as experiments which were to become self-sustaining, although this fact was not always communicated to the consortium prior to termination. It was rationalized that the consortium's value would be so obvious that member institutions would assume consortium funding responsibilities or that other funding would be forthcoming. None of the consortia had even a remote potential for full support from member institutions and there were few, if any, other funding sources for the consortia to pursue.

The funding agencies enforced a variety of stipulations which led to consortium goal displacement. The consortium was forced to pursue short-term goals to justify funding rather than pursue goals more relevant to member or constituent needs. Potential funding more often defined consortium goals rather than well-defined goals having led to improved funding access.

Institutional Commitment and Support Membership appeared to be measured in terms of the amount of advantage gained with little or no investment. The member institutions were willing to utilize the consortia for access to information and other resources as outlined by Beder (1984) but viewed programs or materials produced by the consortia with distrust, even disdain.

One part of this problem was the "indeterminant level of involvement" on the part of institution presidents. The consortia relied upon presidential commitment assuming that faculty commitment would follow. Instead, there was confusion, frustration, and even alienation on the part of faculty. There was general agreement at all three consortia that the failure to involve faculty more extensively was a serious shortcoming.

Mission Clarity and Articulation None of the studied consortia developed concise statements of mission nor did they continuously reassess and adapt the goals which were established. When goals were set, they were not articulated. The failure to communicate a sense of mission throughout the consortium resulted in a failure to achieve consensus on appropriate, unified action. Instead, missions were allowed to "evolve" under the assumption that participatory cooperation would result in the identification of appropriate activities. Repeatedly, faculty and administrators complained about a lack of direction and a sense that they were brought together for no obvious reason.

Organizational Structure The lack of a sense of mission contributed to poor conceptualizations of organizational structures appropriate for attainment of consortium objectives. Two consortia had minimal board and committee structures which resulted in role confusion and no mechanisms for unity of effort. These structures were incompatible with the highly defined institutional bureaucratic structures in which faculty and administrators had to function.

UMA, on the other hand, developed a "behemoth" structure which was alleged to be "top-heavy". Seen as duplicative, the structure was also dysfunctional because it hindered rather than enhanced communication or efficiency.

Effectiveness Each consortium suffered from member institution perceptions of ineffectiveness. Some of the consortia were also perceived that way by funding agencies or communities. While mission was not clearly defined, there was a general sense of what each consortium was to do and the overall assessments were that the consortia had failed.

Leadership Described as "weak" or "charismatically driven", the management of the three consortia was ineffective, particularly at the board level. The reliance upon institution presidents as board members, while perhaps politically necessary, was debilitating because of the presidents' lack of time or interest in providing leadership. It appeared that board members were more interested in monitoring than leading, in restricting than refining. These presidents were selected by their institutions for assumed abilities to manage traditional education organizations but those abilities may not be the same ones required for leadership of collaborative, innovative ventures.

Institutionalization A fear the consortium would be a "super-board" reflected the concern about loss of autonomy. There were also concerns about domain as the institutions perceived competition, duplication, even usurpation. Finally, there were concerns about costs such as a loss of students. In the end, these fears "denied the consortium a life of its own." The institutions were unwilling to define a domain in which to allow the consortia to operate. The issue was often cast in the form of a question about whether the consortium was a project or an entity that was emerging as an institution. This essential question was often addressed but never answered.

Member Complementarity There was dissonance over perceived status, resource wealth, and levels of commitment to the consortium. Some institutions perceived others as gaining more than they, which weakened the consortium.

There was also dissonance over dissimilarity in the type of institutions involved in the consortium. Different philosophies, organizational structures, and funding arrangements complicated cooperation.

Conclusions and Discussion

Beder's (1984) call for reciprocity was not attained nor is this an easy principal to accomplish in a multiple institutional arrangement. The tentative commitments made to the consortia by their member institutions were understandable but debilitating. Rather than enhancing an atmosphere of trust and commitment, the limited initial commitment detracted from an atmosphere conducive to collaboration. Apparently emphasizing the maximization of resource allocation (Benson, 1975), the institutions jealously guarded not only their autonomy but also their domain. Being neither self-controlled nor having substantial commitment from members, the consortia were in very precarious and ultimately fatal predicaments.

The literature on consortia offered little forewarning of the problems they would encounter with mission confusion, lack of organizational structure, and ineffective or nonexistent leadership. There was an apparent desire to enter into open-ended agreements which led to ambiguity and contributed to inaction. Lancaster (1969) had warned of the difficulty of interrelating a corporate management model (institutions) with a political management model (consortia). The warning went unheeded.

The consortia failed to develop compatible structures and pursued, rather than limited, ambiguity. In an overreliance upon flexibility, the necessary structural and management considerations which could have enhanced compatibility were overlooked. Member institutions were approached as centralized operations. The consortia overemphasized presidential support and lost the faculty and ultimately the institution.

The author concludes that it necessary to recognize that limited institutional support, member dissimilarities, and concerns over institutionalization are inherent in the consortial process. In order to achieve success in a consortium it is necessary to anticipate and address these factors. It is also necessary to address matters of mission, structure, and leadership to ensure effective consortium management. Finally, consortium funding can and should be viewed as a public policy issue in which collaboration is pursued as a means to avoid unnecessary duplication and better utilize limited resources.

Recommendations

1. Develop a clearly defined mission with articulated goals and communicate this mission and goals throughout the consortium and its member institutions.
2. Utilize the agreed-upon mission and goals to define appropriate and necessary activities for the consortium.
3. Utilize the mission to develop an organizational structure which will facilitate both goal accomplishment and compatibility with member institutions.
4. Consider board member selection, role definition, and decision-making protocol in terms of the mission and structure of the organization.
5. Require that each potential member prepare a self-study as a prerequisite for membership. The study should include the anticipated benefits of membership, the anticipated contributions, and the anticipated costs.
6. Require membership dues to assure greater ownership.
7. Pursue public policy to provide funding for voluntary cooperation.

These recommendations are offered in the belief that, with appropriate commitment, support, conceptualization, and management, the consortium can provide a potential means to cooperatively achieve selected and clearly defined goals. However, this complex entity must be recognized as being both a collaborative process and an organizational framework requiring effective management. Consortium achievement of mutually desired member goals, is attainable only through continued efforts to better understand, develop, and manage these collaborative efforts.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND WORKS OF THE IMAGINATION: A NEW DIRECTION IN RESEARCH

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Abstract: In this retrospective on works of the imagination relating to adult education, the authors review the research to date, consider the systematic, impressionistic, and direct—or "participatory"—research approaches, and conclude that the metaphor of the rainbow and its pot of gold is appropriate to characterize their differences.

Increasingly since the beginning of the twentieth century, researchers in the various social science fields--including psychology, public administration, sociology, and library science--have studied creative works focusing on practices related to their specialties (3). Novels, short stories, plays, films, poems, television programs, and other works of popular culture have offered these researchers helpful insights. One philosopher and critic's comments about novels can be generalized to all works of the imagination:

> Novels are not just beautiful and imposing verbal constructions. Nor are they idle entertainments. They often have something to "say"; something which if "said," has the power to affect our thinking, our attitudes, our ways of looking and understanding (15, p. xi).

Students of library science--a field closely related to adult education, and one with which it overlaps extensively--have been exploring these genres at least since 1910 (22). There are now more than 40 books, master's theses, and articles examining over 750 works of imagination as they relate to libraries and librarians (20). Public administration is another field in which scholars have taken a pronounced interest in the fictional portrayal of their profession (7). Holzer (5, p. vii) calls literature valuable because it provides a means: "to close the gap between the theory and practice of administration, and at the same time focus on the often overlooked 'human element'."

For all of the same reasons, the study of creative works can help scholars and practitioners of adult education. Only in the past fifteen years, however, have researchers begun to ask whether they could benefit from the creativity of novelists, poets, and others who have incorporated material dealing with adults and their learning practices.

The first fiction-based research in adult education appeared in 1974, in works by Whitelock and Tremor. Whitelock, in a book drawn from an earlier graduate thesis, cites three Australian novels written in the 1960s by authors with personal experience teaching and administering adult education programs. Two of the novels "make some penetrating comments on peoples' motives in taking part in liberal adult education" (32, pp. 313-314). Tremor's citation-packed and innovative--if not bizarre--dissertation advances the idea that the study of novels in the science fiction and utopian genres can help adult educators imagine alternative views of the future, then help other people prepare themselves for a vastly different world (31).

Subsequently, scholars have used methodologies ranging from highly systematic research, with carefully prescribed data bases, to more impressionistic studies oriented toward exploring the presentation of adult students and adult educators in popular culture.

Authors using the former method have sought to determine whether fiction as a data base can be made to yield objective, verifiable, empirical evidence. Merriam (10), Quigley (25 & 26), and Berger (1) provide prime examples of this route.

Merriam (10) analyzes twelve twentieth-century American novels and plays that fit the conventional literary canon, featuring middle-aged males as protagonists. She concludes that the utility of literature as a data source is not limited to the corroboration of empirical studies. It can also "generate new knowledge about a period of adulthood. . . " (p. v). In his dissertation (25), Quigley seeks to force adult basic educators to reexamine their assumptions and methods by calling their attention to lessons learned from nine novels and one short story, all chosen for their concern with resistance to schooling. For Quigley a "close phenomological analysis of resistance" in works by Mark Twain, James T. Farrell, J.D. Salinger, and seven others reveals "six steps in a resistance behavior process [that] take place within the framework of five stages of empowerment," out of which emerges "a new construct of resistance and schooling." As in his dissertation, Quigley --in a later paper (26)--takes off from the seminal work of McKenzie (8 & 9) to find ways of extracting, from works of imagination, information that will systematically expand knowledge about adult education. Works chosen according to the McKenzie approach must satisfy the criteria of the four canons of conventional literary acceptance, sufficiency, relevance, and clarity.

Berger (1) also starts from McKenzie's work (9), as she examines 15 French novels and discovers that they depict "developmental tasks" that closely resemble those described by the psychoanalyst Erik Erikson (2). Earlier, Jackson (6) used similar developmental themes in a dissertation in which he looks at 30 autobiographies to determine what they reveal about adults' self-directed learning activities.

Scholars using a less rigorous, more impressionistic approach have been interested in learning how adult students and educators have been portrayed in fiction and other popular culture media. They look for evidence of negative stereotyping, as well as more sympathetic treatments, particularly of adult students. A principle purpose of this approach is a desire to introduce some fresh air from the literary and popular domains into the often bureaucratic, stuffy writing styles of adult education researchers. Examples of this kind of research can be found in articles by Ohliger (16, 17), Pittman (23), Pittman & Theilmann (24), Hill (4), and Smith (29). Unlike Merriam in her study of male mid-life crisis (10), these authors chose not to limit the works they examined to the literary canon. Instead, they surveyed a wide range of creative efforts, of varying critical acclaim and merit.

In "Really Creative Conferences," Ohliger encourages continuing education practitioners to draw on the ideas and creativity of writers and artists as they plan their actual conference activities (17). He also calls on adult educators to reexamine their whole uncritical allegiance to the conference industry by drawing on the imaginative power of fictional and popular culture works in which conferences figure.

In a study of eight short stories and three novels, Pittman considers the stereotypes associated with fictional treatments of a specialized area of adult education--correspondence schools--a field dealt with by such notables as Graham Greene, William Saroyan, and J. D. Salinger (23). In these works, proprietors are villains, teachers incompetent, and students either innocent victims or grasping opportunists. In short, these stereotypes accurately reflect some current public perceptions of correspondence study. In this respect, correspondence study fares not much worse in fiction than do other forms of postsecondary education (24).

Hill (4) examines the portrayal of older, female students in such popular novels as Marilyn French's The Women's Room and Nancy Pelletier's The Rearrangement. Hill compares and contrasts the presentation of the fictional protagonists with the findings of empirical studies dealing with the same kind of population. She finds that in most cases the fictional accounts corroborate the more conventional studies. Further, by cleverly juxtaposing passages from the novels and the research pieces, she demonstrates that the former add depth, color, and drama to the rather dry data of the latter. Thus, such novels can provide valuable insight and understanding to adult women about to enter college, as well as about their families and the professors and administrators who will encounter them.

Smith (29) combines the systematic and impressionistic methods. In an unpublished paper, she cites examples from three novels that coincide with Knowles's basic assumptions about andragogy. At the same time, however, she lets the novelists and their characters speak for themselves, without forcing them into a mold or extracting data out of context.

While the authors cited to this point have used creative works as a data base--to greater or lesser degrees--there is a related means of using creative works in the study of adult education. Akin to "participatory research," for the purposes of this paper it will be called the "direct approach." This is the actual creation of literary or artistic works for the express purpose of applying them in the teaching of adult education. Munro (12, 13, & 14) is one successful exponent of this path, having presented her poems on adult education at several scholarly conferences. Her work is the most recent expression of a legacy that dates at least as far back as the mid-1950s, when Robert Blakely, then vice president of the Fund for Adult Education, and Leonard Freedman, now Dean of University of California Extension, composed satiric verses and songs to spark national conferences of adult educators. Of course, the prime--and probably the earliest--example of the direct approach is The Education of H*Y*M*A*N K*A*P*L*A*N (27), a series of short stories offering a true adult education textbook, written by Leo Rosten as he was completing his doctorate at the University of Chicago. Rosten--who first published under the nom de plume Leonard Q. Ross to protect his academic standing--based his stories on his own experience teaching immigrants in a Chicago adult night school (18). Rosten set a standard for immediately useful adult education wit and humor still unexcelled after 50 years (21). Another current example of the direct approach in the use of literature is the presentation of plays on literacy-related issues in 27 states by the Northern New England Adult Education/Social Action Theater.

Beyond use in research, literature and other creative works can--and have--fit in well in the classroom and workshop, to the benefit of adult education students and practitioners. One of the authors of this paper leads a graduate seminar on the fictional adult educator, having last conducted it at the University of Wyoming (19). Participants begin the seminar by exploring the ways different media have looked at adult education, proceed to examine issues arising from these perspectives, and end by moving to the direct approach--their own creation of short stories, poems, and songs. In addition, this author has produced an instructional videotape on the treatment of adult education conferences in such works. The second author is developing a module on the image of adult students in novels and films in his Introduction to Adult Education course, a strategy already employed by Professor Michael Day at the University of Wyoming.

Potential or interested course instructors and workshop facilitators can draw on a number of extant resources in addition to the works cited above. Ohliger (19) has compiled a bibliography of more than 1,000 examples of creative works relevant to the field, including imaginative nonfiction treatments. Merriam uses selections from highly regarded authors--and some who contributed to a series on "Illinois Short Fiction"--to illustrate various stages and tasks of adulthood in her anthology (11). This use of creative works, she contends,

> promotes a level of understanding not easily obtainable from texts on adult development . . . bringing concepts to life in a manner that students can readily relate to themselves and to the lives of people they know. (p. ix)

Dorothy Sennett (28) compiled another useful anthology, Full Measure, which addresses the aging process via a selection of short stories by such noted writers as Saul Bellow, Joyce Carol Oates, and Flannery O'Connor. In a forward to this work, Carol Bly says that literature, "when it takes on big subjects . . . can handily package a lot of experience for social scientists" (p. xx).

The two principle approaches explored above--the systematic and the impressionistic--can be compared to the two elements in the metaphor of the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. Systematic approaches tend to look for the gold that can be refined from the works of imagination, while impressionistic ones tend to look for ways to bask in the splendor of the rainbow itself. The former seek to extract gold from the pot for the benefit of adult education research, the latter seek to encourage adult educators to emulate the rainbow itself in its many hues and shades as a way of enlivening the research process. Finally, the direct approach--in which the adult educator personally creates imaginative works--involves simple immersion in the power of the rainbow as inspiration.

Thus literature "defines a vision, creates a perspective, offers an alternative view, salvages the apparently useless human experience, and presents a different angle" (30, p. 54). Practitioners, professors, and students of adult education would do well to consider the alternative views offered by works of the imagination as they seek to develop a sense of collegial identity and attempt to confirm the worth of their efforts. Research based on such sources could be crucial to these goals, as well as an invaluable fount of broader perspectives and--with sensitivity--even of wisdom.

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CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF THE RESEARCH/PRACTICE RELATIONSHIP

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Abstract: This analysis presents cultural influences upon educators from sociology of education, explores potential conflict between the premises of qualitative research paradigms and the ethos of American mainstream society and reflected occupational cultures, and probes potential dilemmas for those who see qualitative research as closing the gap between research and practice.*

The relationship between research and practice in American education is receiving increasing attention as concern mounts about the gap between the theoretical work of university professors and the classroom life of practitioners. The theme of the 1989 meeting of the American Educational Research Association, "The Interdependence of Research and Practice," ironically portrays concern about the lack of interdependence between research and practice. Attention to the theory/ practice relationship is not new in the 1980s for the field of adult education; but there is a new awareness of it as a critical problem for the field (e.g., Merriam, 1986).

At the same time that the research/practice issue is gaining attention in the 1980s, the question of research paradigms becomes increasingly significant. Qualitative methodologies are becoming a force in educational research after being neglected under the domination of quantitative methodologies. Alternative paradigms that emphasize value-related knowledge and contextual realities are seen as providing an inherent base on which to close the gap between research and practice. As Rockhill (1982) explained in a frequently quoted article in Adult Education Quarterly, a research focus on subjective meanings and situational contexts can lead to more full analyses of how adult learning actually occurs in the realities of classroom, work, home and community. Also, the idea of participatory research is gaining American followers as those like Lather (1986) in the Harvard Educational Review argue that practitioners not only need to be involved in the construction and validation of knowledge but also helped to understand and change their situations. While qualitative vs. quantitative research becomes an issue for many, others contend that the two methodologies need to be integrated, and AERA's Educational Researcher publishes ongoing articles that debate philosophically whether the two can be genuinely integrated or not (e.g., Smith and Heshusius, 1986).

Rather than approaching the research/practice issue primarily from either a methodological or a philosophical perspective, the purpose of this paper is to probe the cultural dimensions of the issue. This analysis is exploratory in that it generates factors that are often ignored in current discussions, particularly the kind of conflicts and dilemmas that the adult education field faces--knowingly or unknowingly--in tackling the research/practice problem through qualitative research.

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Cultural Influences

Recent literature in sociology of education is pointing to three categories of cultural influences upon theoreticians and practitioners that have implications for the problem of the research/practice relationship. Metz (1986), for example, concludes from her research in schools that there are influences upon educators from 1) the macro culture of mainstream American society; 2) the occupational culture in which professionals participate; and 3) the micro culture of the specific institution in which an educator works. Metz contends that these three categories should be seen as interactive, complex circles of causation rather than linear chains of causation. Whereas the faculty subculture in an institution is "pivotal in determining final effects....such a subculture has roots in the larger culture of the society and that of the occupation of teaching on the one hand, and in conditions which shape teachers' experience in a particular school on the other (p.221)."

In analyzing faculty subculture itself, Woods (1983) concludes that there are three significant factors that affect what happens in an institution. First is the ideology of educators, their system of beliefs and values, which may vary in any institution and cause divisions among educators. Second is the power relations among the staff. When there are opposing interests, there is always some kind of struggle for power, even if tacit. Third is the pattern of role expectation and the individual response to that expectation. Woods views educators as both being influenced by the faculty subculture and contributing to it. The more institutional rewards educators accept within a system during their careers the more difficult it becomes to see themselves a part from the system. However, individual educators are not "taken over" by cultures, and his or her past socialization can be a latent resource in the individual's response.

It is from the perspective of these cultural contexts that I want to explore potential conflict that exist between the philosophical premises of qualitative paradigms and the cultural ethos of the American society, the occupational cultures of adult education, and the institutional subcultures in which researchers and practitioners actually work. Then I shall probe potential dilemmas for those involved in trying to close the gap between theory and practice through qualitative research, ending with a concluding recommendation.

Potential Conflicts

A prime area of conflict is that of a holistic approach to contextual knowledge vs. a specialized approach to factual knowledge. Whereas qualitative paradigms are open to not only integration among the social sciences, but also between the social sciences and the humanities, the dominant ethos of contemporary American culture and education supports narrow specialization. Bellah et al. (1985) in Habits of the Heart--Individualism and Commitment in American Life describe bureaucratic individualism in the

United States as one that prizes technical skills as means, and Bloom (1987) in Closing of the American Mind bemoans the separation in education of specialized social science from philosophy, facts from values, procedure from purpose.

According to MacIntyre (1981), this dichotomy between facts and values in quantitative research drives a wedge between the exercise of technical skills and the conception and enhancement of the ends for which those professional skills are to serve. There is a naive belief that social science and education research which focuses on objective data and independent variables can produce law-like generalizations upon which experts can base their judgments. Looking at modern American society, he sees the need for professional lives whose existence is on the margin of mainstream society, provoking continuous argument as to what the ends of that profession ought to be. However, adult educators, who attempt to confront the research/practice gap by synthesizing values and facts, go upstream against the decision-making and turf boundaries at most institutions. And given the ways in which research grant funding is usually decided and distributed in universities as well as in external agencies, growth of the research base in adult education is likely to mean research questions that become more specialized and narrow. As Rubenson (1988) explains, this pattern is fueled by the institutional development of adult education in the United States as a separate discipline.

As the focus of concern is more on technical means and less upon ends and ethics, the more likely it is that researchers in adult educators will find themselves as part of institutional networks that are concerned with management of resources and behavior. According to Spring (1988), bureaucratic elites at the tops of such professional networks, whom he calls "knowledge brokers," determine who receives support and the type of research promoted. Educational researchers who do work toward a contextual synthesis of facts and values move against the premises permeating most university networks. In addition, such alternative paradigms can involve extraordinary time and energy for pressured professionals, whether immersing themselves in field ethnography or developing the slow but vital bases of trust with participants (Whyte, 1984).

If researchers do ask questions that are rooted in individual, contextual, and political realities, they enter areas filled with ambiguity, even contradiction. As Popkewitz (1984) explains, actual human experience contains inherent complexities and contradictions that cannot be resolved through the logical operations of the typical paradigm of empirical research. And as Clark (1988) demonstrates through the research on teacher thinking:

> ...teaching as experience is complex, uncertain, and peppered with dilemmas...research on teacher thinking does not promise to discover a generically effective method or set of techniques for dealing with uncertainty, complexity, or dilemmas...(and) by their very natures these qualities defy the quest for a technical fix (pp 9-10).

Potential Dilemmas

The cultural reality is that the quest for a technical fix can get strong support from practitioners as well as from researchers. There is a potential danger of romanticizing practitioners in the quest for making research relevant to practice. In a society where individual and institutional progress is usually measured by a quantifiable demand of observable certainty, adult educators who are anxious with ambiguity, uncertainty and complexity--whether teaching or researching--can be vulnerable to pressures for quick and clear data.

So, there is not only dilemma, but paradox. While research paradigms that emphasize contextual realities of teaching and learning have rich potential for linkage between researchers and practitioners, tacit agreement between those researchers and practitioners, who are influenced by dominant institutional and societal assumptions, can paradoxically work against the very alternative research paradigms that inherently involve the potential for greater linkage between research and practice.

The current state of andragogy as a theory in the United States is a case in point. Although andragogy is rooted in philosophical traditions that qualitative paradigms share, the dominant paradigm on andragogy research is one that aims to measure statistically individual attitudinal dimensions and educational orientations of adult educators and learners (Podeschi, 1987). At the same time, the dominant instructional approach for American practitioners is a behavioristic-humanistic merger as exemplified by Knowles (Podeschi, 1986). Whether the focus on andragogy in the United States is by researchers or practitioners, there is usually little attention given to the historical, philosophical and sociological contexts that could inherently tie andragogy and qualitative paradigms together.

A different kind of dilemma can result for researchers who want an end to the dichotomy and debate between quantitative and qualitative research and who argue for a pragmatic integration between methodologies. On one level, it does make sense to utilize whatever research methods that best answer the research questions. However, as Smith and Heshusius (1986) warn, the idea that research decisions can be made on the basis of what works does not end the debate; what works depends upon the kind of work one wants research to accomplish. Those who want pragmatic intergration when it comes to methodology may find that the mainstream assumptions dominating the context of the research will push aside the value premises with which they started. Desegregation, without parity of power, as minorities who live in a majority culture find out, does not lead to genuine integration.

But how does one confront dominant institutional patterns of power without becoming at-risk professionally? There are merit, tenure, promotion as well as daily decisions that affect people's lives. MacIntyre (1981) pushes the other horn of the dilemma: How does one not become seduced by institutional rewards? He makes a crucial distinction between external goods that are an individual's property and possession for which he or she competes and internal goods which are good for the whole community who participate in the professional practice and for those whom that profession serves. MacIntyre contends that professional practice must not be confused with its setting; institutions are inherently concerned with material goods, status, and power. Professional practice, in contrast, is the arena in which virtues are demonstrated, such as justice, courage and truthfulness--without which the corrupting forces of institutions cannot be resisted. Power then becomes a moral capacity for commitment to the internal goods of professional practice.

Concluding Recommendation

When Merriam (1986) points to the difference between the university reward system and that of practitioners as a primary cause in the problem of linking research to practice, she points to one level of the problem. Professors do gain institutional rewards through their published research, while work with practitioners and their priorities is considered much less prestigious. This status distinction not only divorces the framing and pursuit of questions by researchers from the ways that practitioners confront realities; it also tends to ignore the question whether the research has value for those being studied. However, this status distinction, although important on its own to the problem of the research/practice gap, needs to be seen in the larger context of the cultural ethos.

Philosophical differences do not divide between theoreticians and practitioners; there can potentially be as much, if not more, conflict among practitioners as among professors. The question from a cultural perspective is: How do adult educators stand up to institutions that are driven by external rewards without becoming professionally vulnerable--either by not achieving the necessary base of status and power or, if successful, by becoming trapped by the process and position of achieving that base? If Woods (1983) is correct that institutional rewards socialize educators into becoming part of the system during their careers, from where do adult educators come to carry out MacIntyre's call for a continuity of conflict?

Since the quest for a genuine integration between research and practice through alternative paradigms is routed on a road full of conflict and dilemma, this paper ends with a recommendation: Adult education needs research on the institutions in which researchers and practitioners work, exploring the tensions between external and internal rewards, examining how individuals actually do or do not mediate these tensions. Without appropriate research on the cultural influences, conflicts and dilemmas of actual lives and institutions, "interdependence between theory and practice" will remain only an abstract panacea.

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CULTURE AND LEARNING: A COMPARISON OF WESTERN AND CHINESE CONCEPTIONS OF SELF AND INDIVIDUALITY

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Abstract

Western views of adult education are based on egocentric conceptions of the person which exalt the individual, promote self-direction, place self-concept at the centre of learning, and regard emotions as a vital part of self-concept. In contrast, Chinese conceptions of the person are sociocentric, based on a belief that individual rights are derived from society and subordinate to social interests, resulting in a different conception of self and the relationship between self and society.

Western Conceptions

> Whatever ties of love or loyalty may bind us to other people, we are aware that there is an inner being of our own; that we are individuals. To the Western reader it may come as a surprise that there is any thing unusual in this experience. It is to us a matter of common sense that we stand apart from the natural order in which we are set, subjects over against its objectivity, that we have our own distinct personality, beliefs, and attitude to life ... Western culture, and the Western type of education, has developed this sense of individuality to an extent exceptional among the civilizations of the world. (Morris, 1972, p. 1)

Our conceptions of self and our orientations toward the individual within society flow from philosophical thought and historical tradition and provide important benchmarks for understanding a culture. Within the ethos of some Western societies, particularly the United States, the individual is highly valued and takes precedence over society. This ethos results in the granting of several inalienable rights. For example, the right to express opinions and beliefs, maintain control over one's destiny, protect privacy, and nurture one's development toward autonomy and dignity. In other words, it emphasizes a special relationship between the individual and society based on a belief in naturally endowed rights and the desirability of nurturing self-reliance and independence.

Central to this conception is the recognition of, and need for, the expression of each person's uniqueness. It is a celebration of individual differences and a commitment to

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the belief that it is supremely important not to impose uniformity on that diversity. Such a conception appears in a number of fields. Within education, the commitment to individualized instruction, intellectual and moral development, needs assessment, prior learning and experience, and a host of individual differences makes sense only if one starts from a position of recognizing the individual as the focus of attention.

This brand of individuality is very much concerned with the interior aspects of the person i.e., thoughts and emotions. The world is seen through the concept of self. From such a perspective the world makes sense and is acted upon in terms of its effect upon the individual. There is a tendency to understand the social order and social significance of everyday events in terms of how individuals see themselves. People find meaning in relation to others, particularly significant others, and define their role in the social order on the basis of that relationship. Thus, the Western concept of "self" is largely egocentric and emotionally constructed through an affirmation of self-worth in relation with others. (Abercrombie, Hill, and Turner, 1986; Cole, Gay, Glick, and Sharp, 1971; Hsu, 1981; Macpherson, 1962;)

This means there is a constant need for reaffirmation or validation of self-concept, usually from people whom we value -- our "significant others". Yet, in many cases, that validation process has been extended to even the most casual of relationships and contacts. We have built a set of expectations that each time we interact with someone they should, in some form, validate the fact that we are worthy and important. This can be seen in restaurants, banks, grocery stores, and airlines when the service personnel greet us with a tone and look that suggests it is their pleasure to serve us, even though the warmth and welcoming voice switches with great speed and ease to the next person in line as we move onward. We have come to expect that people will telegraph an emotional or affective message with their eyes, posture, gestures, words, and tone of voice, all to convey an impression of our value. Whether they actually value us or not is insignificant; what matters is that they convey the impression that they value us and that we are important to them and to their work. This instrumentally contrived affection and emotional valuing is closely connected to societal norms and expectations which derive from a sense of self that is highly dependent upon affective validation.

Chinese Conceptions

In China the situation and history are quite different. In traditional China, there was no concept of the natural or inborn rights of person. In place of the idea of natural right was the belief that individual rights were derived from society and hence were subordinate to social interests. While traditional Chinese philosophies had definite ideas about individual equality, rights, and freedom, they were subordinate to ideas of duty, ethical conduct, public benefit, and social responsibility. (Zhang, 1988)

In seeking social harmony and stability, China has elevated public interest above private interests. Most of the people within China are subject to a virtual tower of bureaucracy with people stacked above them, holding power and control over several aspects of their lives -- living quarters, marriage, work, travel, promotion, children, schooling, standard of living, and so on. This vast bureaucracy which forms an essential part of China's society, does not fit easily nor comfortably with Western views of self-concept and individualism. Individuals are reduced, more or less, to subjects, to be moved about at the service of the state and without the right or capacity for independent or self-serving action. In effect, individual rights are granted, and thus can be withheld, by the state for whatever is deemed to be in the interest of the collective.

Of course, China's political philosophy also contributes to the framing of conceptions of individuality. Not only does Chinese socialism represent an emphasis on collective virtues but it also has particular views of individualism. Abercrombie et al. (1986) go so far as to suggest that socialism, in general, is little concerned about providing a place for the individual vis-a-vis society.

> This lack of concern is both practical--the assertion of individual rights may be antithetical to the socialist society--and theoretical --there is no need to provide a theory of the place of the individual within socialist society. (Abercrombie, et al, 1986, p. 76)

While this may misrepresent the extent to which socialist governments in general, and China in particular, have regard for the individual, China's political philosophy recognizes the individual primarily as a member of the whole, placing greater emphasis on duty than on individual rights. In Confucian terms, one must first perform one's duties, not claim one's rights. (Yang, 1986) Rights are bestowed upon people by the government in accordance with their fulfillment of societal duties. Rights, therefore, have a social rather than natural origin and China, as a society, is more sociocentric than egocentric. (Potter, 1988)

Contrasting Conceptions

This conception of the social origin of individual rights and the relationship between individual and society is crucial to understanding the differences between Chinese and Western conceptions of individuality and self-concept. Of course, the Chinese are working with their own definitions of what is important about a person. However, another significant difference between Western and Chinese conceptions of individuality may be related to the relationship between emotions and self-concept. As Potter (1988) observed, the Chinese cultural rationale assumes the continuity of the social order to exist independent of personal, inner feelings. Chinese make sense of themselves in terms of their society and the role(s) they are given within that society. What is uniquely characteristic of the individual's private experience, particularly one's emotions, is defined as lacking in social significance. Potter goes on to say,

> Since emotional expressiveness is not required to affirm an encounter, the Chinese are not required by convention to provide their interlocutors with a continuing symbolic pattern of emotionally expressive response; the absence of this pattern leaves those who expect it at a loss, and it is probably the basis for the old stereotype that the Chinese are inscrutable. (1988, pp. 193-194)

If the emotions of a Chinese person are defined as irrelevant idiosyncrasies, of no intrinsic importance to the social order, and the social order is supremely important in comparison to the individual, then it follows that emotions are also of little significance in the construction of a concept of self within Chinese society. Such a conception is significantly different from one that defines emotions as a fundamental aspect of the self and a means for providing continuous validation between the individual and society.

It is not that the Chinese are devoid of emotions or incapable of being scrutinized or searched through interpersonal means, but rather that they do not telegraph emotions like people from other cultures. Nor do they see the need to validate another's self-concept through an exchange of emotional signals. Indeed, if emotions are not seen as a significant part of the self, why would one send out emotional or affective messages to others? It may not be that they are unwilling to disclose emotions; that would be to come full cycle and interpret their behaviour from a Western perspective. Instead, it seems more within the present interpretation to assume that they see no reason to use emotions as a means of interpersonal validation of non-significant others.

Implications

The differences between Western and Chinese conceptions of self and individuality have important implications when considering cross-cultural exchanges involving popular conceptions of andragogy. As a number of authors have pointed out (e.g. Pratt, 1988), within the adult education milieu of North America, andragogy has gained such popularity as to be seen by some as synonymous with adult education.

Unfortunately, most views of andragogy are egocentric and based on Western conceptions of the person which exalt individual differences, promote self-direction, place self-concept at the centre of learning, and regard emotions as a vital part of self-concept. None of these attributes of self are particularly congruent with Chinese conceptions of the individual and the relationship between self-concept and emotions within Chinese society. For the Chinese, social action, including educational transactions, does not have to be consistent with inner feeling. Sincerity and authenticity are not defined by inner feelings; nor do they necessitate an exchange of emotions between people. When Chinese wish to affirm a relationship they utilize means that draw on other symbolic forms, usually some aspect of work and/or role within society. As Chu (1985) has noted, these role-relations may be directed toward the individual or toward others. Of course, in any relationship both orientations are present; it is, however, a matter of some importance as to the relative emphasis given each orientation. Implicit within this approach is the belief that distance--physical, emotional, and social--is a favorable circumstance for the maintenance of appropriate relationships. (Potter, 1988)

These are not trivial aspects of individual conceptions, capable of being brushed aside in expeditious attempts to transfer knowledge from one country to another, but competing social theories, deeply embedded within the respective cultures and individual psyche. However, there are examples in history of how the cultures of different nations can blend together and promote mutual strengths while helping to overcome individual weaknesses. The blending of traditional Chinese medicine with Western medicine is a good example of benefits derived from "the best of both worlds". It is entirely possible to keep one's cultural foundation while learning the newest achievements of other cultures. This, however, requires a sensitivity to those elements of cultural difference that are compatible as well as those that are incompatible.

Today's China has attained an admirable level and form of socialism. Their historical mission continues to be the creation of a socialist state within a civilization and culture that is, at the core, Chinese. When selecting theoretical orientations and educational programs they must decide whether the borrowed ways of thinking and proceeding complement those elements that constitute the core of what it means to be Chinese.

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SOCIAL POLICY AND ADULT EDUCATION: A CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND TAXONOMY FOR THE FUTURE

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ABSTRACT: With only limited research on social policy in the field of adult education, this paper presents three social policy models, links them to current streams of practice and sociological theory, proposes a taxonomy of mechanisms characteristically found in policies, and presents a number of research issues for future investigation.

INTRODUCTION

Hoggart (1978) has observed that, "very few governments respect the objective search for truth, free speculation or the integrity of the individual conscience...few countries have those interlaced middle layers of critical comment which give a characteristic texture to societies which claim to be democratic" (p.54). If this assessment is accepted, we may well ask what role the field of adult education has played in helping to build "interlaced middle layers of critical comment" in the formation of social policy in our society? Griffith (1976), in a thoughtful article on adult education and politics, found that "despite the programming ingenuity of the [adult education] planners, the limits to their programming are set by political decisions in which they seldom take part" (p. 270). Beyond practice, it is proposed that if the field of adult education is to contribute to the direction of "critical comment" in social policy formation, we need to build our research base through research on the complex "philosophical, moral, psychological and ideological" (Griffin, 1987, p.9) factors which contribute to social policy. While it is clearly important for adult educators to "increase their involvement in the political process of shaping policy," (Griffith, p. 270), without research to objectively inform policy formation, our attempts can be ineffectual at worst, ephemeral at best.

Unlike the United Kingdom, adult education research in North America has generally not included social policy issues. The ERIC data base system alone contains over 28,000 entries with "education(al)" and "policy(ies)" among their key descriptors, but few of these are concerned with North American adult education social policy. Our research has tended to focus on issues which derive from an "individual's benefit rationale"---issues which attend to learner and practice-oriented questions; however, Finch (1984) found that the "individual's benefit rationale" is rarely considered in the policy formation process; rather, "society's benefit rationale" normally underpins social policy. By centering our research on individual learning and practice, our field has had little to contribute to social policy. Meanwhile, adult education is fast becoming a social policy instrument with neither the advisement nor consent of the field.

The position taken in this paper is that adult education would be assisted by a comprehensive conceptual framework locating the various models of social policy within sociological theory and linking these to adult education practice. By providing such a framework, it is possible that we would then have a conceptual starting point for social policy research. To identify/analyze policy, it is is proposed that a taxonomy of the mechanisms characteristic of policy perspectives within the framework would also be helpful. By "problematizing" the framework with salient issues, directions for research begin to emerge together with significant questions for further consideration on this topic.

SOCIAL POLICY DEFINED AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE IN ADULT EDUCATION

At its broadest definitional level, social policy is the attempt to move from a perception of "what is" in society to the conception of what "should be" through governmental action. "What is" is typically driven by concern with those issues arising out of two archetypal conditions in society: scarcity of resources and social inequity. The conception of "what should be" inevitably results in the redistribution of valued resources and what Griffin (1987) calls "life chances." Where education is concerned, social policy is "the attempt to use education to solve social problems, influence social structures, to improve one or more aspects of the social condition, to anticipate crisis" (Silver, 1980, p. 17). Common to all definitions is that policy implementation inexorably involves degrees of intervention in peoples' lives. This may mean much needed "well fare" for some but, on the other hand, it they may be seen as unjustified "ill fare" on the part of others--creating a social policy balancing act for democratic governments and a love-hate relationship with their electorate.

The field of adult education is not immune to these processes; rather, there is mounting evidence that government is "managing" life long learning more directly and more frequently (eg. Jarvis, 1985; Styler, 1984; Ohliger & McCarthy, 1971). This growing trend may be observed in America, Canada and the U.K. in the move towards adult education policies to revitalize the economy with manpower and strategic planning policies, policies on human capital investment, and increased demand for productivity and accountability. Since "the provision of adult education is, in the end, an outcome of the kind of social and political processes which [social policy] models purport to reflect" (Griffin, 1987, p.22), such policies have altered the direction of adult education in ways we have yet to understand.

As a "map" for social policy research, the following synthesizes and adapts the work of Griffin (1987), Jarvis (1985), Mitchell (1984) and Gil (1976):

FIGURE 1: MODELS OF SOCIAL POLICY, ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE, SOCIOLOGICAL THEORY

A. Social Policy Models	MARKET......... MODELS	PROGRESSIVE-LIBERAL-... WELFARE MODELS	SOCIAL REDISTRIBUTION MODELS
B. Adult Education Practice components	VOCATIONAL-.... BEHAVIORIST	LIBERAL-HUMANISTIC-.... PROGRESSIVE	LIBERATORY/SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION
C. Sociological Theories	STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONALISM	<----------->	CONFLICT THEORY

These linkages may be extended to a taxonomy of social policy mechanism characteristics, as follows:

FIGURE 1: ELEMENTS OF A MECHANISMS TAXONOMY

Social Policy Models	MARKET MODELS	PROGRESSIVE-LIBERAL-WELFARE MODELS	SOCIAL REDISTRIBUTION MODELS
D. Characteristic	EXCHANGE	SYSTEMS/FUNCTIONS	INTERACTION/CONFLICT
descriptive metaphor	marketplace	organism	co-operative
ordering principles	incentives	hierarchy	alliances
stability principles	negotiation	homeostasis	power balance
motivational force	utility	relative need	equity
action dynamic	negotiation	cooperation	interest conflict
units of analyses	rational agents	functional structures	formal structures

Following is a taxonomy of salient adult education research areas across each model illustrating varying "policy perceptions" on the same research areas:

FIGURE 2: AREAS FOR SOCIAL POLICY RESEARCH WITHIN POLICY MODELS

E. Macro-Issue	economics & human capital formation	structure, process & meritocracy	status & equity balance
Planning issues	manpower forecasting	long term planning	power distibution
Budgeting issues	investment priorizing	barriers reduction	special programs
Stakeholders	target group analyses	needs assessments	gender/race
Impact issues	input/outcome measure	access/participation	restructuring
Process issues	economics of delivery	governance efficacy	decision making
Evaluation issues	accounting for "value added"	formative/summative assessments	observable power redistribution

Market Models

The three social policy models as shown in Figure 1 have their origins in the earlier work of Titmus (1958, 1968) and Pinker (1971) and underpin the policy formation process. Market models classically depend upon the encouragement of individual freedom for increased self-reliance and seek freedom from bureaucrats who "cannot know best." Market models are founded on utilitarian principles which argue that denial of individualism is denial of freedom and initiative. They have a long tradition in America, from Jefferson's argument for minimal government to Thoreau, who, in Civil Disobedience (1906) stated, "That government is best which governs least...That government is best which governs not at all...when men are prepared for it" (1965, p.85). Today, individualism through volunteer, non-governmental and private sector involvement in social policy formation and implementation is the favoured approach of the Conservative and Progressive Conservative parties of Britain and Canada respectively, and of the Republican party in the U.S.A. Market models have influenced adult education in recent years with demand for self-financed education; for more competitive, measurable, outcome criteria in basic, higher, and vocational education programs. Today questions of participation are framed as manpower planning and human resource development issues with target groups and economic return as areas of concern.

Based in structural functional theory, this social policy model looks to vocational models and, if deemed practical, to liberal-humanistic-progressive models to enhance economic productivity. Archetypal issues of the redistribution of life chances are approached on utilitarian grounds as well. Literacy and programs for the homeless, for instance, are approached as investments in human capital. Unlike the programs of the 1960's and 1970's, literacy campaigns conducted in the market model primarily seeks the assistance of the volunteer sector and industry--always the preferred actors for participation in this model.

On the level of research, market models "seek general principles for analysis in the relationships ordinarily found in the marketplace" (Mitchell, 1984, p. 140). It is noteworthy that the political shift to market models in this decade has impacted trends in school education research. Mitchell (1984) found that U.S. education policy research has gravitated towards three broad areas: manpower forecasting and vocationalism, human capital formation and the politics of economic education, and education productivity functions (p.150). Jarvis's point that "the development of new knowledge...is itself subject to the control and direction of those who control the funds" (1985, p 177) seems particularly relevant here. For adult education, it is noteworthy that the research trend in education has not significantly been one of comparison among models, as will be discussed at the conclusion of this paper

Progressive-Liberal-Welfare Models

Goodwin (1982) lists consent, freedom of choice, meritocratic belief in social justice, and high tolerance of dissent and non-conformity as significant values in this model. Favoured by Democrats in the U.S., the Canadian Liberal party, and the mainstream Labour party in Britain, government intervention is advocated to enhance group/individual status or conditions. An illustration of this model within adult education was Britain's Russell Report (1973) which claimed that the value of adult education "is not solely to be measured by direct increases in earning power of productive capacity or by any other materialistic yardstick, but by the quality of life it inspires in the individual and generates for the community at large" (D.E.S., p. xi). Such policies based on "quality of life" through community/individual co-operation would be considered unmanageable in the market models of today--as indeed was the case later with Thatcher's Conservative party.

An example of how social policies around the same basic issues can change from progressive-liberal-welfare to market was seen in Canada's Employment and Immigration Commission, a federal agency created in 1967 as the, then, Liberal Minister, Jean Marchand, stated, "to provide a second chance for the people who need it most...who missed the chance to acquire a skill during their youth or whose skill has been made obsolete by technological change." The policies which followed were implemented through community colleges and school boards--action consistent with the liberal-progressive-welfare model. Ten years later, a 1977 Senators' review of ABE funding named Basic Training for Skill Development, one of the largest programs, "a major soft spot" (p. 13). It was providing too much "education [for] a far wider range of clients than envisaged in 1967" (p.14). Funding on "BTSD" began to be reduced thereafter and local business and industry councils began advising on ABE funding, as they do today.

Canada is today seeing comparatively extensive funding for vocational programs and has launched its first nation-wide literacy campaign. But, invariably, such policies are under the advisement and assistance of the private and voluntary sectors and economic goals, not "quality of life," are the motivating force. In the U.S.A, the shift from institutional ABE during the 1960's to today's volunteer and work place literacy under the Republican market model reveals the same shift across models to address the same issues. However, questions of the comparative effectiveness of the contrasting policy approaches has yet to be researched--a point to be addressed in the conclusion of this paper.

Social Redistribution Models

Social Redistribution models are given consideration within the divergent ideologies of Britain's Labour Party and the Canadian New Democratic Party. There is no significant political equivalent in the U.S. although American scholars have made substantive contributions to critical educational and sociological theory. Social redistribution models are frequently informed by sociological conflict theory and reference to Marx and Gramsci (see Griffin, 1987) is common. Giroux (1983,a) has categorized the ideological perspectives inherent in the market and liberal models for New Sociology of Education theorists, arguing that schooling out of such models legitimizes the dominant culture through economic, cultural, and political, hegemonic reproduction. The central issue for this critical sociological school is not equality or individualism, as the other models might depict it, but inequality.

Within adult education, practice out of this model has tended to range from reformist, frequently Frierian-influenced, community-based ideologies which see need for counter-hegemonic struggle, to socio-economic reconstruction which adopts a class struggle approach to societal issues. The issues of reproduction raised by this model call for social policy research which considers the impact of adult education on social issues such as the denial of equity in adult education. Griffin (1987) has reviewed the literature in this area, criticizing the marginality of the elderly and of women in adult education, the ideology inherent in leisure adult education, and the limitations of theory development conducted out of the narrow framework of "humanistic psychology and sociological functionalism" (P.253). What is still required in this model is more extensive research which reveals the wider impact of social redistribution models as compared to the impact of the other models, as will now be discussed

CONCLUSION AND ISSUES FOR THE FUTURE

Lindeman has stated that under democratic conditions authority is of the group. To this point, adult education has largely been excluded from the social policy arena, more often playing the role of willing instrument for policy implementation than informed advisor in policy formation. To become a a fuller participant, the first issue appears to be that our research efforts need to focus more on the "society's benefit rational" which typically undergirds social policy. To this end, the social policy models presented here may be of assistance. Secondly, social policy research will need to be informed not only by social policy theory and research but also by sociology--an area which has been lamentably under researched in our work in North America. The sociological components linked to practice as discussed above may be useful in this respect. A more specific research agenda, possibly deriving from the areas presented here, will also be necessary. But, given the variance in policy perspectives across models, the question of our purpose in conducting social policy research arises. Obviously, our research may focus on any of the areas arising within any of the policy models and, obviously, we can choose to research with the political trends, as education evidently has. However, to consider advocacy and "critical comment," the issue becomes the need for comparative research across models. Here, it is possible that being informed by Critical Theory--the Frankfurt School to Habermas--may be of help. Since, "policy research is a value-laden process, in which many of the decisions involved in the research effort are driven by numerous and sometimes conflicting values" (Majchrzak, 1987, p. 21) and since Critical Theory begins with "acknowledging the limitations of [any] perspective or framework" (Giroux, 1983, p. 20), recognition of "false consciousness" within models could play an important role. Notwithstanding its criticism for having "failed abysmally to integrate theory and practice" (Ritzer, 1983, p. 267), Critical Theory nevertheless holds promise for establishing a dialectic both between policy and practice internal within models and across models. Dialectic between a model's ideology and its practice in reality, and/or across models, seems particularly necessary for "critical comment" based on social policy research. This point, however, calls for further discussion.

Finally, it is proposed that our fuller participation at the social policy level will not take place unless social policy research is seen as a priority. It is submitted that until our voice is heard through research in social policy formation, our disparate research on individuals and practice will have little social impact--to the detriment of both our society and our field.

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RESEARCH AND PRACTICE TRENDS IN EDUCATION AND AGING: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL GERONTOLOGY

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Abstract: Content of the first 11 volumes of Educational Gerontology: An International Bimonthly Journal was analyzed in order to examine major themes and trends in education and aging. The findings indicate that educational gerontology has evolved in diverse directions and, as a specialty area within adult education, is a promising area for researchers and practitioners alike.

INTRODUCTION

Educational gerontology, the study and practice of education for and about older adults and aging, is essentially an integration of adult education with the interdisciplinary study of aging. According to Peterson (1976), educational gerontology encompasses the following three major areas of focus: 1) education for older adults; 2) education for persons of all ages about old age and the processes of aging; and 3) education for professionals and paraprofessionals involved in working with older persons.

While an interest in education during later life has been a concern of adult educators for several decades (e.g., Donahue, 1955), the emergence of this specialty area has been particularly pronounced during the past 20 years or so. Perhaps the most obvious illustration of this increased emphasis has been the establishment of a journal focusing specifically on this emerging area. Educational Gerontology: An International Quarterly was published for the first time in 1976. Between 1976 and 1981, the publication was issued on a quarterly basis. In January, 1982, the journal was expanded to a bimonhthly format and is now titled Educational Gerontology: An International Bimonthly Journal.

There are numerous ways to assess the "state of the art" in a field of study or practice at a given time. Within adult education, one approach has been to analyze the content of professional literature in order to determine trends and research approaches that have tended to predominate the field. Such analyses of adult education periodicals have been conducted by Dickinson and Rusnell (1971), Long and Agyekum (1974), Brockett (1982), and Fisher and Martin (1987).

In this investigation, the purpose is to describe the state of the art of educational gerontology as reflected within the pages of Educational Gerontology over its initial 11 volumes. By analyzing the content of the journal, it should be possible to gain an understanding of major trends and approaches that are predominant among contributors to the professional literature in the area. This brief paper describes such an analysis.

PROCEDURE

Three investigators originally participated in the content analysis. The investigators discussed previous content analysis research and the apparent content of Educational Gerontology in order to develop a preliminary system for classifying each article according to the following areas; author, institutional affiliation, length, article format (including research design where appropriate), content focus, and classification according to the Peterson definition of educational gerontology cited above. While the classification systems utilized by Dickinson and Rusnell (1971), Long and Agyekum (1974), and Brockett (1982) served as a point of departure, the investigators made modifications from these earlier systems inn order to accommodate the specific focus of the journal under study.

Two of the investigators divided the first 11 volumes of Educational Gerontology into volume years and reviewed each of the articles for those volumes. Throughout the process, all three investigators met to discuss the review process and, where appropriate, to make modifications in the classification system. These modifications included addition, deletion, and combination of certain categories. Each article was examined by two of the investigators for article format and Peterson classification data for each article. Where reviewers disagreed on the classification of an article, two of the investigators further reviewed and discussed the article until agreement was reached. For further analysis, the volumes were divided into 3 groups (group 1 = volumes 1-4; group 2 = volumes 5-8; group 3 = volumes 9-11) and the articles for each group were examined using the classification scheme. This helped identify publication trends over time periods.

A limitation of this methodology is the potential for different interpretations by different reviewers. While a conscious effort was made to derive a common definition for each category in the classification, discrepancies between reviewers are inevitable. Similarly, other researchers might find alternate classification systems and definitions to be more appropriate. Thus, the data presented below are offered as one of many possible interpretations.

FINDINGS

A total of 382 articles were published in Educational Gerontology during the first 11 volumes. The findings presented below pertain to 1) article type, 2) Peterson definition classification, 3) content focus and 4) institutional affiliation.

Article Type

Each article was classified according to format using the following categories: research, personal belief or opinion, interpretive, and descriptive. Further, research articles were classified according to the design utilized. Format categories are presented below.

Research - Articles based on the collection and analysis of empirical data. These articles were further broken down according to the following research design categories: survey/descriptive, experimental (including quasi-experimental), correlational/ex post facto, qualitative, and historical.

Interpretive - Articles based primarily on a critical review, analysis, and/or synthesis of previous literature. This category includes literature reviews and theoretical or philosophical formulations, as well as general, literature-supported, discussions of issues and practices in educational gerontology.

Descriptive - Articles that report on specific programs or practices implemented in specific programs. Articles in this category may or may not utilize supporting literature.

Personal Belief or Opinion - Articles based on attitudes, opinions, or insights held by the author(s). These articles include little or no supporting documentation from the literature and do not include the reporting of original data-based findings.

Nearly one-half (49.2%) of the articles appearing in the journal during the study period involved the reporting of original research. The next most predominant category consisted of interpretive articles (32.7%). Descriptive articles (15.4%) and personal belief/opinion articles (2.6%) comprised less than one-fifth of the articles published during the study period. In addition, the trend over the 11 volumes was toward a steady increase in the percentage of research articles (42.3% to 50.0% to 56.7%). This was matched with a concomitant decrease in the interpretive and descriptive articles while the personal belief articles remained about constant.

With regard to design, of the 189 articles classified as reports of original empirical research, 48.7% utilized a survey or descriptive design. Studies utilizing correlational or ex post facto and experimental/quasi-experimental designs each accounted for roughly one-quarter of the total percentage of research articles (25.4% and 22.8%, respectively). Qualitative research reports comprised 3.2% of the total, while no articles utilizing the historical method were found. The two trends worth noting were a decrease in the survey design articles (56.4% to 45.9% to 45.0%) and a similar increase in the articles with correlational/ex post facto designs (14.5% to 31.1% to 28.3%). When interpreting these findings, it is important to bear in mind that some studies reported several types of design incorporated into a single study. For example, correlational/ex post facto or experimental/quasi-experimental categories were frequently recorded when survey descriptive data were also reported.

Peterson Classification

As was stated earlier, Peterson (1976) has described the field of educational gerontology as consisting of the following three major aspects:

- education of/for older adults;
- education about old age and aging; and
- education for professionals and paraprofessionals who work with older adults.

More than one-half (57.7%) of the articles appearing in Educational Gerontology from 1976 to 1985 focused on education for older adults. These include articles on such issues as cognitive functioning (e.g., intelligence, memory, problem solving ability), noncognitive factors (e.g., learning style, motivation, sensorimotor capacities), teaching/learning issues (e.g., teaching techniques, learning environment, barriers to participation and retention), administrative/program development practices (e.g., educational policy, needs assessment, evaluation), and description of how specific programs have been developed implemented (e.g. Elderhostel).

Another 22.2% of the articles during the 11-volume period focused on education about aging. Included in this broad categories are articles dealing with societal attitudes toward aging, media portrayals of old age, descriptions of programs for people of various ages to become sensitized to aging and old age issues, and discussions of the older adult's roles and functions in society.

Finally, 20.1% of the articles emphasized discussion of education for those professionals and paraprofessionals who work with older persons. Examples of these articles include descriptions of specific programs and practices related to undergraduate and graduate education in gerontology as well as staff development and training for those already employed in gerontology-related fields (e.g., health care staff, counseling, and social work professionals).

Although there was fluctuation in the percentage of articles published in each of these categories, there were no consistent trends.

Content Focus

To obtain a better understanding of the literature, each of the three categories described above was further divided into topical subcategories suggested by the articles themselves. In the category of "Education for Older Adults" there were the following subcategories: planning, administration, and policy; teaching-instructional process; the older learner; and learning ability. In the category "Education About Aging" the subcategories were intergenerational aspects of aging and media portrayals. In the "Education for Professionals and Paraprofessionals," the subcategories were pre-service (degree and certificate programs) and continuing education. Each category also included subcategories for model programs and trends and issues. The trends and issues subcategory was useful for those diverse articles not easily fitting into one of the other groupings.

The two most frequently identified subcategories were the older learner (14.1%) and learning ability (10.2%). The older learner articles were descriptive in nature reporting demographics and barriers of this population. In addition this was the only subcategory that showed a marked change in the articles published, going from 11.5% in the early years of publication to 21.2% more recently. The least frequently published subcategories were model programs on working with older adults (4.5%), continuing education for professionals and paraprofessionals (2.6%) and model programs about aging and older adults (1.3%).

Institutional Affiliation of Authors

The last focus considered in this analysis is the institutional affiliation of contributors to the journal. Consistent with general trends in academic publishing, the vast majority of articles were written by authors affiliated with a college or university (80.9%). A "mixed" category, referring to articles where two or more types of institutional affiliations were identified (e.g., business and college/university), was a distant second (8.3%). A fairly substantial number of these interinstitutional authorships included at least one partner affiliated with a college or university.

Another area of interest with regard to institutional affiliation is the extent to which authors from outside of the U.S. contribute to the publication. Although the vast majority of contributors are from the U.S., the international authorship has grown from 2.3% in the first four volumes of publication to 15.4% in more recent years.

DISCUSSION

Based on the above discussion, several conclusions can be tentatively drawn regarding the first 11 volumes of Educational Gerontology. First, over 80% of the articles appearing in Educational Gerontology during the first 11 volumes can be classified as reports of original research or interpretive analyses. Only a very small percentage of articles emphasized the personal belief or opinion of the author. If building on previous literature is an index of the scholarly quality of a journal, this finding lends a degree of support to the idea that Educational Gerontology has promoted an editorial policy emphasizing scholarship.

Second, the emphasis of research-based articles has been almost entirely on quantitative approaches to the study of educational gerontology. Given the growing emphasis on qualitative and historical designs in educational research (e.g., McMillan & Schumacher, 1984; Bogdan & Biklen, 1982), this finding may be indicative of a major gap in this literature to date. Perhaps a future direction for future research on education and aging would be investigations that ask questions relevant to the development of grounded theory and historical interpretation and analysis.

Third, if Peterson's typology is utilized in order to understand major thrusts of work in educational gerontology, it is clear that the majority of work has been directed toward education for older adults. The other two aspects, education about aging and education for professionals/paraprofessionals, have each been the focus of about one-fifth of the articles. In terms of subcategories, major trends seem to be in the areas of "the older learner" and "learning ability," both of which fall into the education for older adults category.

Finally, the finding that the vast majority of authors are affiliated with a college or university seems consistent with academic publishing trends. At the same time, despite a seemingly growing trend toward international authorship of articles, this percentage remains relatively small and may indicate that the journal has had more of a domestic appeal than its international emphasis might suggest.

In conclusion, there can be little doubt that the area of educational gerontology has had a substantial impact on the fields of adult education and gerontology. Educational Gerontology: An International Bimonthly Journal has contributed to this emphasis by providing a source in the professional literature where researchers and practitioners can turn to gain information and insights about current research and practice trends in this seemingly expanding area of interest.

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ADULTS ON CAMPUS: THE G.I. BILL AND THE COLLEGES

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Abstract: Through an examination of historical documents this paper will discuss the background of some of the measures adopted by colleges to meet the needs of returning veterans. It will link these changes to concerns about adult learners and to major policy reforms facing higher education at the time.

Introduction

The passage of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, commonly known as the G.I. Bill of Rights, and the subsequent flooding of American colleges and universities have long been seen as watershed events in the history of American adult education. According to Malcolm Knowles (1977), the experience with the G.I.s introduced a new awareness of the problems of adults onto the nation's campuses as the colleges struggled to adapt to the influx of mature students. While there can be little doubt that American higher education responded to this new population, it is probably inaccurate to attribute these changes solely to a concern with the new students. In fact the story is more complex. This paper will consider some of the changes associated with this period in terms of the broader trends current within higher education in the period before the war. Utilizing contemporary journal articles and the archives of the American Council on Education, this study will address the following questions: (1) What were the recommendations made by various experts concerning planning for veterans? Specifically, how were adults on campus viewed and what problems were anticipated? (2) How did the changes called for and those actually accepted coincide with views of adult learners and higher education in general?

Planning Efforts

Well before the passage of the G.I. Bill, colleges and universities began to consider how they would handle demobilization. Looking back on the World War I experience, it was assumed that enrollments would dramatically increase as those whose educations had been interrupted or delayed returned to school. Educators warned of the crises the veterans would create on the nation's campuses - both because of their advanced ages and their unusual war experiences. Experts stressed the pathological characteristics which would be exhibited by the veterans and made suggestions as to how family members could ease the G.I.'s adjustment to civilian life (Forkner, 1944a).

The reaction on campus was to combine these general fears with concern about the special needs of these new students. Recommendations for change ranged from suggestions about new curricula, teaching techniques and admissions and placement policies, to the development of counseling programs and facilities for married students all the way to discussions about the reformulation of the objectives of the bachelor's degree itself. Unique programs were suggested to meet the needs of this group. These included special vocational programs; vestibule programs for those who needed a transition to the full college program; and more active placement offices which would rely on the new testing and counseling techniques in offering aid to this mature student. In what was probably the most controversial of the proposed reforms, many advocates felt that the traditional emphasis on the liberal arts would need to change. "We can be certain that the boy who dropped out of college is not going to want to return to much of the time-wasting type of education which colleges frequently provided before he went to war." (Cartwright, 1944; Forkner, 1944b, p.93).

Planners placed great emphasis on the veterans' need to accelerate their studies. This could be accomplished by several methods including maintenance of the war-time calendar with full summer sessions. But one of the most thorough aspects of the planning effort involved the procedures developed for giving credit for armed services experience. This project, undertaken early in 1942 by the United States Armed Forces Institute and USAFI and the American Council on Education (ACE), began with the recommendation that a series of tests be developed which would measure the actual learning gained by each individual soldier.

College administrators and ACE officials were concerned that the precedent of the first world war not be repeated. Following World War I, most colleges had given "blanket credit" to returning veterans as a form of benefit. This meant that college credit was awarded for the experience of armed service rather than for the specific learning gained. Amounts given had varied enormously and students inevitably shopped around for the program offering the most credit. The results were devalued college degrees. Planners were emphatic that such a debacle must not be repeated (ACE, Committee on Accrediting Procedures, Statement, Jan. 20, 1944).

The concerns were heightened by the fact that this was the "best educated army in the history of the world" (Forkner, 1944a). The educational level of the armed forces was substantially higher than it had been during the previous war, having risen from the sixth to tenth grade level (Hines, 1945). In addition, the various services had undertaken an enormous educational program. It was stated that "It is probably no exaggeration to say that never has any institution taught so much to so many in so short a time." (Spearman and Brown, 1946, p.32). Learning had taken the form of technical training programs, off-duty formal educational activities, and "incidental learning" gained from experiences such as travel abroad (Dressel, 1947). The technical training was an integral part of the fighting effort, in line with the new specialized warfare being conducted. By 1943 alone, 63% of all those serving in the Army had had some form of such training (Tyler, 1943a). The off-duty educational program was offered through USAFI and had three components: college-level correspondence courses; high school correspondence courses; and class instruction wherever teaching personnel was available (Tyler, 1943b). Military authorities had developed and encouraged such a study program as a means of maintaining morale and providing training which would be useful upon return to civilian life (ACE Special Committee, April 6, 1942).

Concerned about the implications of blanket credit, USAFI began searching for an alternative almost as soon as it began functioning. Working with ACE, it recommended that educational achievement be assessed through testing. A group was established under Ralph Tyler, director of Examinations at the University of Chicago, to begin development of the tests (ACE Special Committee, April 6, 1942). The Tyler project as it came to be called was mandated to develop four kinds of tests: (1) course completion examinations for technical courses; (2) examinations which would measure general educational development on the college and high school levels; (3) certification examinations to measure learning in high school and college subjects; and (4) special tests to assess in learning specialized areas (Detchen, 1945). These tests were seen as the best way of ascertaining learning. Since institutions could not develop such a series individually, a national effort was deemed most appropriate (McGrath, 1944a).

At the same that that the Examinations Staff was developing its tests, ACE was drawing up procedures for awarding credit based on the tests. Its first effort, published in 1943 as Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience, recommended the use of the USAFI exams for placement and credit based on institutional norms. It soon became clear that these measures were insufficient. The colleges were still not able to develop their own standards and continued to turn to USAFI and ACE for help (ACE, Minutes, 1943). As the situation reached a critical stage ACE set about developing a manual which would describe training programs and make credit recommendations. A committee was established under George P. Tuttle, Registrar of the University of Illinois and the first version of The Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experience in the Armed Services was published in July, 1944. Tuttle's Guide, as it was known, was well-received. Yet questions remain about the impetus for these reforms.

Understanding the Larger Trends

When historians have looked at the GI Bill they have come to varying assessments. Some have portrayed it as a marker which had great implications for the future of mass higher and adult education. Others saw it as having had limited impact in the long-run. None seem to have examined it as the result of culmination of various trends in higher education taking place during the period between the wars. For all of the fears, it was soon apparent that the returning veterans were the best group of students to ever attend U.S. higher education. The fears that the students would need special services and would not be integrated into the general fabric of undergraduate rapidly disintegrated. While new programs were started, they principally dealt with the unexpected number of students, rather than the anticipated problems. Far from being rebellious and troublesome, the veterans were conscientious students, seeking traditional degrees. The most permanent changes involved the implementation of flexible admissions and placement criteria as well as more developed counseling and placement services (Olson, 1974). Yet these were the result of calls for reform which antedated American participation in World War II.

As was apparently well understood at the time, the war was seen as providing the opportunity for the development of a huge experimental laboratory. From counseling centers to assessment testing, from altering the curriculum to different modes of teaching, the calls for change in higher education echoed the calls for reform which had been taking place for the previous twenty years. This can be clearly seen in the area of assessment and credit for service experience. The planners who developed the USAFI exams and the Tuttle Guides constantly reiterated the importance of moving toward such an assessment-based degree. Even before World War II, some path-breaking colleges had abandoned strict adherence to the four-year program and had instituted comprehensive testing instead (McGrath, 1944b).

Several different aspects converged into the adoption of the USAFI exams and the Tuttle Guides. Again and again writers indicated their fear that the movement toward reform which had begun before the war would lessen under the exigencies of the war-time demands. We have the rather interesting paradox of long-called for programs and changes being developed to meet what were considered to be emergency situations, rather than the circumstances under which they had been formulated. The problems facing the colleges during the post-war period were clustered around issues relating to the sheer numbers of veterans, rather than to any particular problems which the G.I.s brought with them. The interface of concerns over maturity and academic issues really only surfaced in terms of admissions and placement.

In these instances, calls for institutional flexibility meshed with both the needs of the new students and the aims of reformers. In terms of placement, the principal question was how to develop a means for assessing learning so that students could get credit for what they had already learned. For their parts, the students themselves wanted thorough and rigorous educations, but they also wanted to move through the system as quickly as possible. In particular, they wanted to be placed appropriately and not made to repeat classes the contents of which they had already mastered.

The somewhat differing interests of the colleges and the Armed Forces also played important roles. The institutions wanted the veterans to graduate quickly because entering G.I.s were jamming the freshmen and sophomore classes. Better placement would allow for less of a bulge at the entry level. The concerns of the Armed Services focused on questions of morale. The early planning for demobilization not only aided the colleges, but was also supposed to bolster morale within the service.

These three interests coincided with the calls of reformers that education in general and higher education in particular shift from an emphasis on "time-spent" as the basis for awarding degrees to an assessment-based approach. Such a change would implicitly recognize that learning could occur under many different types of circumstances and that institutions of higher education needed to recognize this fact. The colleges accepted the exams and the Tuttle Guide recommendations with amazing (and fairly uncritical) ease. The high school GED exam was used by 80% of the institutions contacted in one survey as the basis for admission. Almost all of the schools accepted the USAFI end-of-course tests and subject tests and 53% allowed credit for the college-level GED exam (CASE, Minutes, Jan. 7, 1946). While the planners anticipated a long-term shift, in fact the colleges used the tests and the Guide as an interim measure. Contrary to expectations, few developed their own norms or standards, simply adopting the Tuttle Guide recommendations until the crunch was over. Some lasting developments including the institutionalization of veterans' programs and the acceptance of the Tuttle Guides. The USAFI tests laid the groundwork for the General Equivalency Degree (GED) as we know it today as well as the College Level Examination Program (CLEP). But the full level of anticipated was never reached.

We therefore need to approach the traditional views on the impact of the G.I. Bill with some questions. The manifold reforms of higher education advocated during this period were usually linked to the unique nature of the returning veterans. Because of their maturity, their war experiences, and their anxiety about returning to society, it was anticipated that these men and women would never adjust to the traditional colleges and universities. These calls certainly agreed with the prevailing wisdom within adult education circles that the adult student would present unique problems (Cartwright, 1944). Yet the specifics of the proposals were in fact part of a more general movement to restructure the college experience.

Not quite the anomaly some writers would have us believe, the war-time changes made on college campuses were motivated by complex factors. While primarily derived from the immediate and unexpected press of students, they were conceptually in accord with many of the reform efforts within higher education during the 1920s and 1930s. Although rhetoric linked the changes to concerns quite familiar to those in adult education, it would seem that the broader issues leading to implementation were related to long-range reform efforts and short-term concerns with morale.

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Adult Basic Educators' Perceptions of Learning Disabilities

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ABE and GED staff employed as program directors, teachers, and counselors were surveyed to determine their attitudes and knowledge regarding learning disabilities in the ABE/GED student population, the availability of staff development activities and support services related to LD students, and the desire for additional staff development and support services. Results will be shared and a multi- tier service model will be suggested.

Statement of the Problem

Efforts to locate learning disabled (LD) adults through adult basic education programs as part of a recently conducted research project revealed the difficulty of identifying formally diagnosed LD adults through this network. This was a somewhat surprising finding given the frequent informal indications that Adult Basic Education (ABE) teachers perceive that a large proportion of the students in their programs have learning disabilities. In fact, we know relatively little about the actual incidence of learning disabilities among participants in ABE/GED programs. Travis (1979) has suggested the incidence in ABE classes may be as high as 80%. This is in sharp contrast to the service level to LD children within the public schools. Only 4.62% of children received special education services for the learning disabled during 1984 (Tugend, 1985). While no standard definition for learning disabilities in adults has been accepted, the definition accepted at a federal level for identifying children with learning disabilities emphasizes a discrepancy between level of achievement and an average or better intellectual ability, in the absence of other conditions which might cause the learning deficit. This definition also emphasizes the presence of information processing problems. A discrepancy between teachers' informal estimates of the number of students with learning disabilities and the number of students identifiable for research purposes may be at least partially a result of differing conceptions of the meaning of the term learning disabilities, a long-controversial label in the field of special education.

A limited amount of research has been reported regarding the training needs of other professionals responsible for education or training of LD adults. In a study of public rehabilitation services for individuals with learning disabilities, Miller, Mulkey, and Kopp (1984) surveyed 163 VR counselors. They frequently mentioned a discomfort with their own expertise in providing services to LD clients and expressed the need for training in characteristics of learning disabilities and diagnostic assessment. Similarly, Shaw and Norlander (1986) suggested that in-service training was needed for college and university faculties working with LD students. This was supported by the findings of Akssamit, Morris, and Leuenberger (1987) that although college faculty and staff had fairly positive attitudes toward LD students, their knowledge about learning disabilities was less impressive. No existing literature was located reporting knowledge and attitudes of adult educators regarding learning disabilities or their desires for future education in this area. Yet, accurate estimates, appropriate identification, and effective interventions depend upon adult educators' awareness of the nature of learning disabilities in adults.

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Objectives

An exploratory study was designed to examine the knowledge, attitudes, and needs of ABE and GED staff regarding adult students with learning disabilities. This research project included several goals, two of which will be discussed here: (a) to determine the level of awareness of those staff members regarding the nature of LD as manifest during adulthood and (b) to assess the desire of Act 306 staff for specific types of staff development activities related to learning disabled adults.

Methodology

Data Collection

Substantial modifications were made to a questionnaire originally designed by Dorothy Tiede (University of Wisconsin, Whitewater) to assess perceptions of college faculty regarding learning disabilities. The redesigned questionnaire included general questions asked of all staff members and specific questions based on staff roles of administrator, teacher or counselor. After soliciting the participation of program directors of ABE/GED programs funded through Act 306, questionnaires were mailed to program directors,teachers, and counselors. Forty-six percent of the programs in the state participated. Sixty two percent of the questionnaires were returned in useable form.

Data Analysis

For the purposes of quantitative analysis respondents were classified according to the role indicated in item number one to be their primary role. Quantitative analysis utilizing the Systat program for the Macintosh computer was completed for those items requiring a fixed choice response. The level of analysis depended upon the item, with many nominal level items permitting only the use of frequency and percentage distribution tables. Tests of significance, using Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance, were calculated for those items allowing ordinal measurement. Thus, some statements can be made about significant differences among the groups of staff members (administrators, teachers, and counselors) with regard to perceptions about adult learning disabilities. Tests of statistical significance were not utilized to determine whether differences existed among the groups with regard to awareness and perceived need for staff development, service provisions, and resources because small cell sizes violated the assumptions for otherwise appropriate tests of significance.

A number of items also yielded qualitative data. Respondent-generated definitions of learning disabilities and responses to open-ended items were sorted by item and by staff role to permit content analysis. Frequency counts were applied to categories generated from the data when appropriate. All comments were recorded verbatim.

Findings

Description of Respondents

Useable questionnaires were received from 205 teachers, 64 administrators and 37 counselors. The sample was almost equally divided among males and females. Seventeen percent reported previous experience as special education teachers.

Definitions of Learning Disability

Staff members participating in the study were asked to respond to the question, "How would you personally define learning disabilities?" These definitions were compiled by role and analyzed for distinctive elements emerging from the data. One or more key elements of the federal definition of learning disabilities were present in many definitions. A study by the National Task Force on Identification (Chalfant, 1985) reported that state definitions typically included two to five of the following five components: (a) academic failure, (b) psychological process , (c) exclusionary, (d) etiology, and (e) significant discrepancy. In addition to the previously documented components of definitions of learning disabilities used by the federal government or states to classify learning disabled students, participants in this study generated definitions which focused on (a) the presence of unspecified physical and/or mental problems, (b) inability to learn through "normal" methods", (c) generic learning problems resulting from unknown or any of a list of causes, or (d) a list of "symptoms". Table 1 shows the prevalence (ranked by frequency count) of the six most frequently mentioned elements among the definitions given by respondents (mentioned by at least 10%).

Table 1

Respondent Generated Definitions of LD

Elements of Definition	Total Group	Administrators	Teachers	Counselors
Information Processing[a]	67	13	47	7
Not Learning thru "Normal" methods	59	12	43	4
Generic Learning Problem	50	13	29	8
Average Ability[a]	47	11	28	8
Achievement Discrepancy[a]	41	9	18	10
Physical or Mental Problem	39	32	4	3

[a]These elements coincide with components included in federal and state definitions.

Staff attitudes and knowledge

A Likert-type scale elicited responses along a continuum from "strongly agree" (1) to "strongly disagree" (6). The statistical technique used to analyze the data was the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance. As a measure of central tendency, an interpolation formula was used to compute medians for each item for administrators, counselors, and teachers. These results are found in Table 2.

Attitudes toward students with learning disabilities were generally positive, with all three groups agreeing that teaching learning disabled adults could be very rewarding. They also recognized that they needed to know more about the characteristics and needs of students with specific learning disabilites.

Accommodations for students with learning disabilities. All three groups agreed that it is acceptable to spend additional funds to make accommodations in their programs for LD students, and that learning disabled students should be allowed to use taped books. However, they did not believe that students with learning disabilities should be allowed to take untimed GED tests and tended to disagree that ABE/GED standards should be different for learning disabled students. When asked if their program had made accommodations for students with learning disabilities, all groups agreed, although teachers and counselors were not as strong in their agreement with this question (Table 2, item 16).

Table 2
Staff Perceptions of Learning Disabilities: Medians of Items 7-31

Item#	Administrators	Counselors	Teachers
7.	2.19	2.17	2.05
8.	1.85	1.47	1.75
9.	5.82	5.90	5.74
10.	1.68	1.64	1.42
**11.	1.50	1.59	2.01
12.	5.28	5.44	4.94
13.	1.70	1.81	1.83
14.	3.61	3.72	3.53
15.	2.10	2.55	1.94
*16.	2.95	3.30	3.43
17.	1.82	2.13	2.18
18.	5.06	4.63	4.64
*19.	1.86	2.22	2.26
20.	1.73	2.03	2.09
21.	3.40	4.07	3.88
22.	4.97	4.91	4.91
**23.	3.57	3.27	3.05
24.	3.00	2.92	2.92
25.	4.70	4.77	4.58
26.	4.53	4.55	4.31
27.	3.47	3.14	3.24
***28.	2.12	2.27	2.99
** 29.	2.45	2.73	3.10
30.	3.76	3.10	3.32
31.	1.86	2.00	2.15

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Characteristics of LD adults. Although teachers and counselors tended to agree that they could recognize a learning disabled student, administrators tended not to agree (Table 2, item 23). All groups of respondents strongly disagreed that persons with learning disabilities are also mentally retarded and believed that unique problems exist for each learning disabled student. They recognized that college was an appropriate goal for some individuals with learning disabilities (although teachers did not agree as strongly as counselors and administrators; Table 2, item 11), and denied that LD students who attended college would not succeed. However, they tended to believe that LD students should be considered handicapped.

All groups acknowledged that poor writing and spelling skills were problems frequently faced by learning disabled students, but they also believed that LD adults frequently find ways to compensate for their learning problems. Administrators were strongest in their agreement that LD adults could compensate (Table 2, item 19). When asked whether they felt that skill deficits in adults with learning disabilities were caused by poor study habits, they disagreed. Respondents also disagreed that support services for learning disabled students tend to delay development of self-reliance and independence, but did not believe that an individualized program for learning disabled students would be sufficient to eliminate learning problems.

They believed that people with learning disabilities have fewer employment opportunities than other adults, but were less sure whether learning disabled adults at ABE/GED levels were protected from discriminatory educational practices by federal law. In fact, 38 participants did not respond at all to the question of legal protection and several persons wrote "Don't know" next to this question.

Knowledge of how to provide assistance. Respondents acknowledged that ABE/GED teachers should help adults with learning disabilities develop ways to get around their learning problems. All groups tended to agree that they knew when and how to provide assistance to learning disabled individuals in their classes, but there were significant differences between the groups in their knowledge of where to refer individuals with suspected learning disabilities for assessment and where to refer learning disabled students for help in receiving services. All groups either agreed or tended to agree that they knew where to refer students, but teachers were less sure of where to refer students for assessment (Table 2, item 28) , and counselors and teachers were less sure of where to refer LD students for help in receiving services (Table 2, item 29).

Existing Staff Development and Support Services

All respondents were asked about their awareness of available services for assessment and remediation of learning disabled students, consultation regarding such students, and staff development on this topic. They were asked to check whether a number of services were available through their programs. Most frequently reported as available were: (a) program counselor -- 38.18%; (b) printed resource materials -- 37.82%, (c) assessment -- 31.21 %; and (c) inservice on characteristics of LD -- 25.82%. Only 14.80% had access to an LD specialist to work with students --14.80%, or with teachers -- 17.33%. These data reveal some apparent differences in access to information about services according to role, with administrators and counselors more inclined to report available services in several categories (referral linkages, counselor support to teachers, appropriate curriculum materials, and printed resource materials on learning disabilities).

Perceived Need for Staff Development and Support Services

In addition to ascertaining the availability of support services and inservice training regarding learning disabilities for Act 306 program staff, another aim of this project was the assessment of perceived needs for additional support in this area. In almost all areas for which services were limited, staff reported an interest in seeing such services provided. The greatest overall interest was in training on teaching methods for and characteristics of LD students. A majority of the personnel surveyed were also interested in LD specialist consultative support to teachers, additional assessment services, additional teaching and resource materials, and LD specialists to work with students. Those aspects of service indicated as a need by less than 50% of the respondents were services that were more frequently reported to be available (referral agencies and counselor consultation). These data suggest that a sizeable minority of ABE/GED staff do not perceive a need for any support services other than for assessment of learning disabled students, in-service training regarding their characteristics and how to teach them, and access to appropriate teaching materials.

Administrators appear to be more interested than teachers and counselors in the provision of specialized support services including assessment for learning disabilities, LD teachers to work with students, and LD teachers to work with teachers. Teachers appear to be more concerned than administrators or counselors with the provision of printed resource materials on learning disabilities and in-service training on the characteristics of learning disabled students, although they are somewhat less concerned with availability of referral sources and in-service training on teaching methods for learning disabled students.

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

A survey of paid ABE/GED staff in the state of Pennsylvania was conducted to determine several kinds of information including: (a) current perceptions regarding the characteristics, needs and capabilities of learning disabled adults; (b) knowledge of existing staff development opportunities and resources for support services to teachers and LD students; and (c) perceived need for additional staff development programs and support services.

Data collected through mailed questionnaires were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Participants were asked to give their own definitions of the term learning disability. The frequent failure to mention exclusion of other causes of the learning problems and the frequency of reference to generic learning problems suggests ABE/GED personnel do not necessarily use the same criteria in referring to student learning disabilities as those commonly applied in the school setting. While there may be merit to seriously assessing the appropriateness of criteria developed to determine childhood learning disabilities for diagnosing adults, this variability in operational definition has obvious implications for possible miscommunication between ABE/GED staff and those from a special education framework who may work with them. There has already been criticism offered of the reasonably wide variation in the operationalization of LD definitions in schools, leading to a danger of equating LD with underachievement (Chalfant, 1985; Tugend, 1985; Algozzine & Ysseldyke, 1987) An even broader definition may lead to overidentification and unnecessary labeling, making it more difficult to conduct research or make recommendations regarding the adult LD population.

While respondents generally held positive attitudes toward students with learning disabilities, they were not as knowledgeable about the legal considerations that must be given to these students as a result of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Inservice training should provide information about the characteristics of LD adults along with information about their legal rights.

Responses to a core of questions eliciting information about existing and desired staff development opportunities and other support services were revealing. Aside from awareness of referral agencies, program counselors to assist teachers with learning disabled students, and available printed resource materials on learning disabilities, most forms of direct support and inservice training were perceived as relatively nonavailable. Staff members' responses indicated a strong desire for inservice activities, services for assessment and remediation of learning disabled students, and consultative support to teachers.

The need for a multi-tiered approach to serving the needs of learning disabled adults in adult basic education programs is supported by the results of this study. Such an approach would emphasize the value of mainstreaming and educating the L.D. adult in the least restrictive environment, while providing specialized direct services to a segment of the LD adult population. A schema for such an approach will be shared during the conference presentation.

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WOMEN SPEAK ABOUT THEIR LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT Women's experiences in higher education are investigated to describe significant aspects of learning in their own words. Ten women from the U.S. and seven from other cultures are compared.

Women's experience as learners has not been dealt with adequately. Most of the research has been designed to investigate learning from a theoretical perspective or has used male experience as a basis for generalization. Fortunately more and more research has explored how life is experienced by women (e.g., Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Gilligan, 1982; Lewis, 1988; Josselson, 1986). Both women and men benefit from this exploration since affirming multiple perspectives on life broadens life-choice options are broadened for all persons.

Aware of all this literature, I wanted to investigate learning from a different viewpoint. I am interested in meaning and the way women themselves speak of their experience. I wanted to talk to women students about their classroom experiences.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There are three possible conceptual frameworks for the reporting of this research: 1) feminist teaching literature (Maher & Schniedewind, 1987; Rannells, 1988), (2) adult education literature (Conti, 1985; Brookfield, 1985; Knowles, 1970), 3) themes from women's learning experiences. Since the frameworks from the feminist and adult education literature are discussed elsewhere, this paper will focus on themes suggested from the interviews with women learners in a higher education setting.

METHODOLOGY

Ten women students from the United States were interviewed in the Fall of 1987; seven international students were interviewed in the Fall of 1988. Two students were working on doctoral degrees; nine, on master's degrees. The rest (six) were undergraduates. All but two of the students were women returning to higher education having stopped out for three to twenty years. All women were enrolled at Texas Woman's University. Interview questions for the U. S. sample concerned 1) the relationship of course content to daily life experiences, 2) the extent of collaborative learning experiences, 3) the quality of teacher/learner interaction, and 4) changes occurring as a result of the learning experiences. The decision was made to interview women who had been in the U. S. for less than five years so that a comparison could be made. The research assumption was that the U. S. experience of students schooled in another culture would be quite different and, if understood appropriately, would expose basic assumptions of the U. S. learning and teaching situation. Interview questions for the international sample concerned 1) differences between their higher education experiences at home and in the U. S., 2) strategies for dealing with difficult situations, and 3) characteristics of successful learning experiences. Data were analyzed to identify meaning statements and to develop themes by comparison and contrast of the interview narratives (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

FOUR THEMES SUGGESTED BY WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES

Professor's attitudes and actions set a climate for learning.

One theme suggested from the U. S. narratives was that the quality of the interaction between professor and learner affected learning. Students gave excited, affirming accounts of classroom experiences and learnings when professors valued student's experience, encourage discussion, offer alternatives to the student's position. On the other hand students reported a different kind of learning when they felt their opinions and experience were not valued.

Positive experiences occurred when professors encouraged sharing and a cooperative spirit in their classes, accepted the personal stories of students, allowed student opinions to be shared, and knew when to listen and when to say something. The student said "The professors listened to my comments and offered me alternatives. If they did not agree they still valued my opinion. It was a great image booster." Another helpful professor action was "encouraging us to throw paper airplanes." Students were encouraged to toss out ideas for discussion through which students learned to develop and defend ideas. The professor also was willing to express his or her hypotheses.

Some professors helped students cope with academic demands and personal standards and interests. The professor was helpful in alleviating my anxiety. 'Its ok,' she said, 'Everyone will still love you if you don't get an A.'"

Negative experiences occurred when students perceived that faculty were not affirming and not interested in them. According to one student, a professor "thought he was god; he was condescending; he lectured. If one disagreed with him the student was put down. He wanted to hear himself quoted on tests." One student remembered a teacher who could not handle class discussion and another who did not want students to ask questions.

Some male professors "sloughed off" the importance of women. For example one student thought the poetry of a slave women poet was beautiful. The professor explained that "we are trying to include black women writers, but this one isn't very good." The student became depressed and angry at his discounting attitude.

Negative reactions of faculty to student comments also hindered student participation. A student stated that whether she made contributions to class depended upon the results of early question-asking ventures in the class. If the professor were open and interested in her remarks she would continue, but if the professor were not, she would not ask questions. She always WANTED to ask questions, however. Another student said that when her comments were not listened to, she withdrew.

This theme was not supported in the narratives of the international students. Professors were described as helpful and understanding in both U. S. and home country settings. It may be that the attention of the international women was not focused on this aspect of learning for two reasons. First, women indicated that the teacher student relationship was more distant and formal in home country education. While questions and discussion were encouraged, they did not occur often. Second, women acknowledged that cultural support for the expression of feelings (sometimes even positive ones) was limited. Women were very hesitant to state opinions and feelings that reflect negatively about one in authority.

Student actions were important in whether a learning experience was positive.

Motivation of the student is, of course, significant for learning, however the response of the student was of importance in these examples. Consider these comments from the U.S. women:

"We could do our research paper on anything we wanted and I worked my tail off and I got so much out of it." "I am a returning student and I want it all. I felt guilty if I didn't read enough for the class and angry that I couldn't do it all. I gave up social engagements because I wanted to study." "When I realized that I could do something with my mind, I buckled down with a vengeance."

The international women were less specific in their comments but involvement in an assignment and application of a theoretical concept were important. Several women applauded class activities in both their home country and the U. S. that called for field interviews or work experience and subsequent integration with literature. One woman said, "When you do things you learn more than when you watch."

The importance of their own response to a situation seems most evident as the women spoke of the strategies they employed to deal with difficult situations in the U. S. This might be expected since perhaps the major learning experience for them has been learning to function in this "foreign" culture. The women identified situations such as not understanding the language, getting poor grades, being rebuffed by U. S. students as trigger events for major learning opportunities for them. Even the ordinary class assignments were unusual because of the richness of library, audio-visual, and laboratory resources that were to be used. The women identified actions of listening and watching, talking to family and other international students, speaking privately to professors and analyzing theirs and others actions for clues. Critical thinking and analysis skills were certainly developed in these situations.

Women had a rich background of experiences that influenced the quality of the learning encounter.

Adult education theory puts a high value on the impact on learning of prior experience. Situations explained by the women suggest this third theme were true particularly in regard to (a) faculty openness to the perspective offered by the student, (b) perceptions of self formed from earlier life situations, and (c) cultural differences.

One example from the U. S. women concerned the use of inclusive language which was important for one student. She commented on this in a class stating that "...1/2 the population is being left out" if you use only masculine references." She continued saying, "The prof said 'How interesting'... like it was a big surprise to him." This professor's comment was not affirming to the woman. Her experience of feeling left out of academic discourse was being discounted as well as her opinion.

Another student indicated "My biggest challenge has been to be more independent in my thoughts, able to question, realize that my opinion is just as valid as my husband's." She implied that she had felt her husband's opinion was more important than her own. She now was learning to value her own opinion and preferences.

In these examples women have given evidence to their ability and the necessity to engage in critical thinking; that is, the critical examination of basic assumptions they have held in regard to themselves and their relationships with the world. They did this, however, not always with the encouragement and nor with the support of their professors. Some did it in spite of some professors and out of necessity in order retain/regain a sense of worth for themselves when that self had been put in jeopardy by the professor's attitude and actions within the learning encounter.

The adult education theory would suggest that the student's prior experiences with learning and work would be helpful to learning in the new situation and should be sought out by professors and colleagues. Only two of the international students mentioned that experiences in their home country were helpful as resources in the U. S. and were sought out by professors and students. In many situations it seemed that the socio-cultural background of the women was a hindrance to learning. First, cultural restrictions on women limited their career options in their home country. One woman came to the U. S. to visit a relative not telling her parents she was hoping to stay to attend school. Second women had developed successful learning strategies in their home country that were not useful in the U. S. Two women spoke of the national testing system which required broad reading and essay answers compared to multiple choice tests in the U. S. and essay questions that required closely focused answers. The requirements of learning situations that necessitate broad reading with little application was detrimental when women needed to learn to be more specific and analytical in their U. S. study. Third, the fear of appearing stupid by committing language use errors inhibited women from interacting freely with peers and professors.

Another perspective, one of being empowered through the learning, was indicated in this narrative from a U. S. woman: "I have grown in self-esteem; I can do more than I ever thought I could. Now I can DO instead of setting back and saying 'I don't know whether I can or not.' I'm not scared to jump in with both feet and try. Always I held myself back . Now I don't so much." Although this women had years of experience as a volunteer before coming to college, she was unsure about her competence and risk-taking abilities.

The feeling was echoed by a woman from Bangladesh: "I have learned so much about compassion; I will never be the same." This understanding came from her analysis of communication patterns of the two cultures which she identifies certain home culture communications patterns as rude and blunt. Instead she preferred to adopt affirming, positive and supportive mode of interaction. She said "In my country is was proper to say 'You are not fit for this!' Now I would say 'Since you are more skillful in this area, why not try it."

Information about women's lives and achievements was vital to learning.

This was the fourth theme evident from the U. S. women's interviews. A basic tenet of the women's movement in education is the necessity to include in all fields accurate information about the contributions of women to knowledge in the discipline and about the impact on women's lives knowledge in the field has made. In general the U. S. women reported the inclusion of women-oriented information in their classes and positive learnings about themselves through this. The comments again differ between the samples.

"Reading and discussing about the problems of women and the variety of women's lifestyles was very important for my learning.

"[Learning about women] made me feel great about myself and surprised at my audacity - these women we are studying are prominent and brilliant and super to compete in a world of men." Her implication is that SHE too is learning to do this.

"I was frustrated. I grew up to expect to get married and have kids..I did. Now I know that I could have done both." Her implication was that if encouraged earlier, she and other women could have done so much more.

"I was enraged at the way women were treated. We are somewhat better now but not much."

It should be noted that not all women felt this way; one said she "simply expected women to do well." In addition several individuals reported that not all professors and not all disciplines included such information.

Only one of the international women indicated that women-oriented knowledge was important for her learning. Three had attended single sex institutions for all of their schooling and were accustomed to "learning with women." Most, however, spoke about the differences in the cultures about women's roles and socialization. For example, "Women can not be independent; they must be escorted." "There are few women professionals in my country." "Women do not speak their emotions." This new experienced freedom may mask particular learnings about themselves as women.

The international sample was different also in the manner of relating to peer women. Several women told of experiencing isolation, rejection and being taken advantage of by U. S. women (and men) students. "They are too lazy to try to understand my accent." "They already have their friends and choose not to reach out." "She said she needed my help and I wanted to help her. When I did help her, she did not repay me and angrily told me to go back where I came from." These women found their support in family and other students from their country. Women from the U. S. report women students as supportive and inspiring. "I learn so much from our discussions; it seems like everyone understands."

DISCUSSION

Interviews with women students both support and challenge existing theory on student experience in higher education. Education experiences in the United States seen through the experiences of women schooled in other cultures provides a perspective that highlights similarities and differences. Further analysis should utilize research by Peck (1986) and Warren (1986). Peck posits a model for the self-definition of women consisting of a "sphere of influence" flexible and elastic to accommodate the dynamic interaction among relationships, learnings and socio-cultural time. Warren's analysis of life history interviews with women immigrants in Canada suggests additional aspects of experience helpful in interpreting the experience of women new to a particular culture.

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THE RELEVANCE OF ROBERT STERNBERG'S TRIARCHIC THEORY OF HUMAN INTELLIGENCE TO ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract: This paper introduces and discusses the relevance of Robert Sternberg's triarchic theory of human intelligence to adult education.

INTRODUCTION

Every once in awhile, someone comes along who has the power to change current thinking. Jean Piaget did this for early childhood education as Peter Drucker did for management and organizational development. In the field of adult education, Allen Tough offered new insights into the area of self-directed learning which changed the course of history. And of course, Malcolm Knowles has left his mark with the popularization of andragogy.

Robert Sternberg, a trailblazer in cognitive psychology, has offered new ideas dealing with human intelligence that not only promise to alter the discipline of psychology, but adult education as well. His "triarchic theory of human intelligence" offers a more holistic understanding of intelligence and the way we learn. Although many theories of intelligence exist, Sternberg's theory is particularly noteworthy because it subsumes elements of other theories of intelligence by synthesizing much of what is known about intelligence into a coherent and comprehensive form (Farr and Moon, 1988).

PURPOSE, SCOPE, AND APPROACH

The purpose of this study was to investigate Sternberg's triarchic theory of human intelligence and to see if it had any relevance for adult education. An intensive review of adult education literature revealed virtually no attention to Sternberg's work with the exception of Farr (1987), Farr and Moon (1988) and Sisco (1988) so the inquiry was judged to be potentially significant. Since the study involved synthesizing knowledge and information from Sternberg's work and his colleagues and then introducing it to another field or discipline, it is best described as a form of meta-research. This paper introduces Sternberg's intelligence theory and discusses its possible connections to adult education theory and practice. It is important to note that the present study was exploratory in nature, designed to promote dialogue and discussion among adult educators.

Data sources included books, articles, and monographs written by or about Robert Sternberg and his triarchic theory of human intelligence. Primary sources were examined so as to construct an understanding of the origins of Sternberg's theory and its evolution to date. Relevant adult education literature was also examined.

STERNBERG'S TRIARCHIC THEORY OF HUMAN INTELLIGENCE

According to Sternberg (1988), the study of human intelligence "has not been notable for rapid progress, either in theory or application" (p. 4). This is probably an understatement since the tests used to measure intelligence look pretty much the same way today as when they were first introduced some sixty or seventy years ago. Traditional conceptions of intelligence have been fairly narrow in focus, often directly linked to how well people perform in school. As a result, intelligence has become synonymous with academic achievement.

This traditional view of intelligence has haunted Sternberg since his early days in grade school. Apparently, he performed so poorly on IQ tests in fifth-grade that he was nearly kept from progressing to sixth-grade. A retest under more relaxed circumstances saved him from such embarrassment and lead, as he has written, to "my lifelong interest in intelligence" (1988, p. x). Today, although barely forty years of age, he is arguably the most celebrated authority on matters dealing with human intelligence.

The evolution of Sternberg's thinking about human intelligence did not occur over night. During the late 1970's, he, like many other investigators of intelligence, was busily involved in the information-processing analysis of intelligence-test items. This work proved unsatisfactory for Sternberg since he began to question the assumption underlying this analysis that such items provide a reasonably comprehensive picture of intelligence (1987b, 1985a). His own experience with graduate students at Yale University seemed to belie this view. Some of his students came with impeccable credentials--high aptitude test scores, outstanding college grades, excellent letters of recommendation --while others had good grades, but abysmal aptitude test scores. Still others were very good on almost every measure of ability to succeed in graduate school, but not truly outstanding on any of them. What really intrigued Sternberg is that by the end of their graduate programs, some of the students who started out at the top of the class finished near the middle and vice-versa. This caused him to look more diligently at the factors associated with human intelligence since the usual measures of potential performance had not proved to be reliably predictive.

To explain this phenomenon, Sternberg began to see intelligence "in terms of three distinct but interrelated aspects: the internal world of the individual, the external world of the individual, and the experience of the individual" (1987a, p. 50). He reasoned that each of these aspects involve different mental processes and abilities. For example, the internal aspect of intelligence emphasizes analytic abilities, the external aspect adaptive abilities, and the experiential aspect synthetic abilities. With this in mind, Sternberg proposed his triarchic theory of human intelligence as a means of dealing with all three aspects of intelligence. He cogently summarized his motivation for a more coherent explanation of intelligent behavior by writing, "The convergence of my analysis of the research literature and my personal experience convinced me that what was needed was a 'triarchic' theory of human intelligence--one that did justice to each of these three aspects" (1988, p. 58).

In a 1984 article, Sternberg first introduced his triarchic theory of human intelligence. A 1985 book entitled *Beyond IQ: A Triarchic Theory of Human Intelligence* described the theory in detail and offered empirical evidence to substantiate its claims. Since that time, Sternberg has published numerous books and articles devoted to a further explication and application of his theory (1985a, 1986b, 1987a, 1988).

According to Sternberg (1985a), the triarchic theory seeks to understand human intelligence in terms of three subtheories: a contextual subtheory that relates intelligence to the external world of the individual; a componential subtheory that relates intelligence to the internal world of the individual; and an experiential subtheory that applies to both the internal and external environments. The contextual subtheory focuses on intelligent behavior in the everyday world. Here individuals may choose to adapt to their environment, select another more desirable environment, or try to modify the environment so as to better meet their needs. The componential subtheory focuses on the kinds and identities of mental processes involved in intelligent thought. Three different kinds of components are involved including metacomponents (executive processes used to plan, monitor, and evaluate a problem), performance components (mental processes that execute the instructions of the metacomponents such as encoding, inferring, applying, and comparing), and knowledge-acquisition components (processes used in learning how to solve a problem or in learning new facts or concepts). The experiential subtheory focuses on the role of experience in intelligent behavior. Here, the ability to cope with novelty and to automatize familiar tasks are intimately related. Superior ability to deal with novelty enables the individual to move more rapidly and effectively toward automization. Similarly, superior automization ability frees more mental resources for dealing with novelty. Thus, the more aspects of a task or situation are automatized, the more one can focus attention on the novel aspects of the task or situation. Sternberg (1985a) captures the power of his theory by noting, "Behavior is intelligent to the extent that it is (a) used in the adaptation to, selection of, or shaping of one's environment; (b) responsive to a novel kind of task or situation or in the process of becoming automatized; and (c) the result of metacomponential, performance-componential, or knowledge-acquisition functioning of the kind specified by the componential subtheory" (p. 319). The overall structure of the triarchic theory and subtheories is shown in Figure 1.

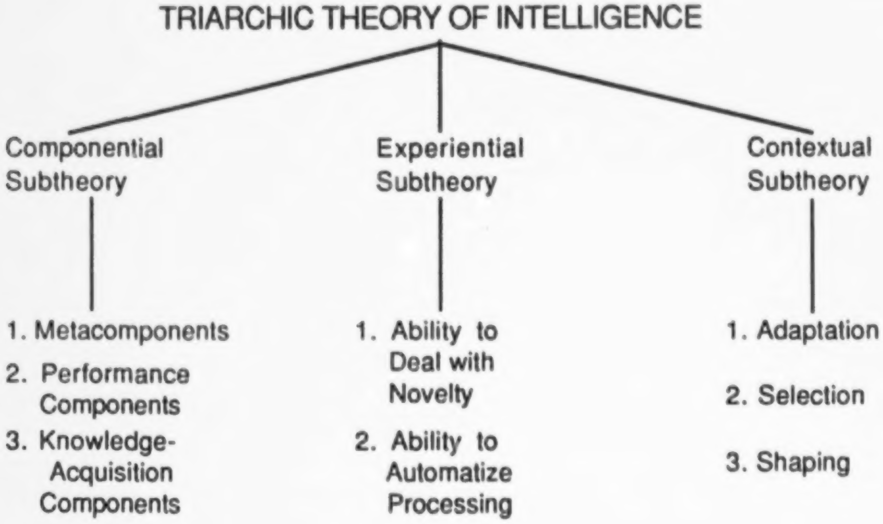
TRIARCHIC THEORY OF INTELLIGENCE
Componential Subtheory
Experiential Subtheory
Contextual Subtheory
1. Metacomponents
2. Performance Components
3. Knowledge-Acquisition Components
1. Ability to Deal with Novelty
2. Ability to Automatize Processing
1. Adaptation
2. Selection
3. Shaping

Figure 1. Structure of the triarchic theory of human intelligence.

In addition to the triarchic theory, Sternberg has also focused his talents on a number of related topics including the study of creativity and wisdom (1985c, 1986b), an understanding of practical intelligence (Wagner & Sternberg,1985; Sternberg & Wagner, 1986), the relationship between intelligence and tacit knowledge (Wagner & Sternberg,1985), and the training of intelligence (1986a, 1987a,b, 1988). To this end, he has devoted considerable attention to the development of a training program designed to help people increase their intellectual skills as well as to better understand these skills. Most recently, he has focused his attention on the development of a theory of mental self- government that proposes a set of intellectual styles as a bridge between intelligence and personality. According to the theory, intellectual styles can be understood as governmental in (a) function (legislative, executive, judicial), (b) form (monarchic, hierarchic, oligarchic, anarchic), (c) level (global, local), (d) scope (internal, external) and (e) leaning (conservative, progressive). Sternberg believes that "these styles can be used to explain and predict aspects of performance in school, on the job, and in personal life that cannot be directly attributed to intelligence" (1988, p. 275).

RELEVANCE TO ADULT EDUCATION

The human intelligence work of Robert Sternberg appears to offer a number of notable possibilities for adult education and seems to be particularly relevant to both practitioners and theoreticians alike. One suspects that in coming years, Sternberg's work will be looked to for guidance, explanation, and edification. Already this is true in the public schools where challenges to traditional IQ testing are being made. However, in adult education, the impact of his work remains to be seen. Thus, the discussion which follows will hopefully spark greater dialogue among adult educators regarding Sternberg's work.

One of the most significant implications would appear to be something that many adult educators have believed, at least implicitly, for a long time now; that human intelligence is much more than performance on standardized tests and achievement in schools. We have all experienced the occasion when certain participants in our programs performed poorly on standardized tests and yet performed splendidly in their actual class assignments. Perhaps as a way of explaining this phenomena, we reasoned that such people must be "underachievers" or we looked for sources of their puzzling behavior outside of their measured intelligence. We might even have thought that there must be more to intelligence than the tests measure. The problem has been that prevailing intelligence theories have continued to stress performance on standardized tests as evidence of intelligent behavior. As a result, adult educators have had to supplant their value and experiential claims in the face of enormous empirical and political support from psychometricians and psychologists alike testifying to the efficacy of conventional intelligence testing and commensurate intelligence theories. Add to this, an almost atheoretical stance by many adult educators and the plot thickens.

Sternberg believes these conventional notions of intelligence and companion tests to be fatally flawed and provides convincing evidence to support his claims (1985a,d). For example, the problem with most intelligence theories and supporting tests is they tend to emphasize speed and accuracy of processing and often consist of tasks that have nothing to do with performance in real-world settings. Sternberg (1984b) argues that most of the consequential tasks people face in life do not require problem solving or decision-making in the few seconds typically allotted for the solution of IQ test problems. Rather, they require an intelligent allocation of one's time to the various subproblems or problems at hand.

Sternberg goes even further in his critique of conventional intelligence testing by noting that they simply do a poor job of predicting performance in the real-world. Consider two observations. First, with surprising frequency, individuals with histories of remarkable performance in formal schooling are only moderately successfull in their occupations, and conversely, individuals with unremarkable academic records are highly successful in their occupations. Second, many professionals report that most if not all of the learning that really mattered to their careers took place after completion of their formal training (Wagner & Sternberg, 1985). The obvious point in all of this, according to Sternberg, is that intelligence is more than what various measures of school achievement and standardized tests measure (1987a). It is a quality that we use continually in our everyday lives--on the job, in our interpersonal relationships, in decision making. His triarchic theory, which explicates the relationship of the internal world of the individual, the external world of the individual, and the role of experience, helps adult educators to understand the dynamic and interrelated qualities of human intelligence and its potential bearing in everyday life. Thus, adult educators have at their disposal, a theoretical model that can be applied to the vary contexts that constitute so much of adulthood: the everyday world.

Another implication of Sternberg's work is his assumption that intelligence can be taught. In fact, he has devoted an entire book for training intellectual skills at the high-school and collegiate level (1986a). A more recent book (1988) has been developed for use by the lay public. At the heart of Sternberg's training program is his triarchic theory. His program begins with a discussion and critique of the major approaches to intelligence followed by an explication of his triarchic theory that he believes does justice to the full range of thought and behavior that constitutes intelligence. The triarchic theory is then discussed in detail followed by in-depth treatment of each subtheory with applied examples and exercises. A final part of this program deals with typical impediments to the full realization of one's intelligence such as lack of motivation, lack of impulse control, lack of perseverance, inability to translate thought into action, fear of failure procrastination, distractability and so forth (1987a). The main strengths of Sternberg's intelligence training program is that it is based on a theory that has been subjected to fairly extensive and rigorous empirical testing. It emphasizes a broad range of intellectual skills and focuses on academic as well as practical intelligence. Finally, the program has assessment tools for measuring training effects. Sternberg's intelligence training program would seem to be of vital interest to adult education practitioners at all levels from basic education through graduate study in that it presumes a developmental epistemology as well as an applied approach to intellectual augmentation.

An additional implication of Sternberg's triarchic theory may be in the realm of further informing adult education theory and practice. Some writers such as Brookfield (1986) and Courtney (1986) have gone so far as to question if adult education can ever attain a general theory of adult learning. Merriam (1987) suggests that although one unified adult learning theory may never emerge, "theory building efforts in adult learning do contribute to our growing understanding of adult learning" (p. 197). Bright (1988) is less tolerant and accepting of adult education efforts to date. He believes that "epistemological vandalism" has occurred in relation to adult education and psychology. He cites three major epistemological issues within this relationship; 1) the origin of knowledge currently being used within adult education; 2) the selection of knowledge content within curricula in adult education; and 3) the status of this derived knowledge at the hands of adult education. Bright reinforces his argument by noting that the treasured adult education theory of andragogy has its rightful roots in Humanistic Psychology and that this attribution has only been selectively acknowledged. In addition, Bright maintains that psychological knowledge has received a high level of abbreviation and lack of detail in the teaching and research of adult education.

Being sympathetic to both points of view, it is the opinion of this author that Sternberg's work does have much relevance to adult education theory and practice. The fact that adult educators have focused attention on the characteristics of adult learners in an effort to distinguish their field from other areas of education seems inescapable (Brookfield, 1986). Inevitably, such characteristics as readiness to learn, self-direction in learning, applied learning orientation, and extensive experience are used to describe adult learners and differentiate them from their younger counterparts. The problem has been that there is very little empirical evidence to substantiate such claims. Sternberg's triarchic theory appears to offer some clarity to this otherwise muddled situation. His acknowledgement that intelligent behavior consists of mental, social, and experiential skills and abilities is an excellent starting point. So too is his assertion that IQ matters less in adulthood; tacit knowledge--what people need to know in order to get along in their environment--is far more important. With careful attention to the triarchic theory, adult educators can begin to understand the comprehensive nature of human intelligence and its impact in real-world settings. More importantly, adult educators have a solid theoretical model that confirms and substantiates their own tacit experience.

The human intelligence work of Robert Sternberg provides a base for new thinking about adult learning and education as well new vistas for research and practice. This brief discussion has hopefully provided an introduction to a promising theoretical perspective and encouraged dialogue and action among adult educators everywhere.

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OF SHIBBOLETHS AND SHENANIGANS: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING

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Abstract: Many attempts have been made by researchers to demonstrate the benefits of involving learners in program planning. This paper raises some questions about this body of research and proposes that a more sophisticated view of the imperative may lead to improvements in theory and research.

Few "principles" in the field of adult education are as entrenched in the rhetoric of theory and practice as the imperative that adults ought to participate in the planning of programs in which they are learners (Ewert, 1982; Rosenblum & Darkenwald, 1983). For decades, various claims have been made regarding the efficacy of participation in planning with some authors proposing that specific benefits will result from actively involving learners in making decisions about objectives, content, activities, methods, evaluation, and so on--decisions which produce the outcome and design specifications of an educational program (Dutton, 1970; Lord, 1976). Researchers have attempted to validate some claims of efficacy by comparing program outcomes--most often satisfaction and achievement--between experimental groups, which are offered an opportunity to participate in planning, and control groups, which are not offered the opportunity. Results have been inconsistent and sometimes contradictory, yet the imperative to involve the learner in planning persists. Inconsistent findings or findings that do not support the imperative are often explained as products of faulty research designs. The purposes of this paper are to explore the nature of the imperative and to report on an effort to identify, analyze, and evaluate research that investigated the relationship between participation in planning and presumed benefits of such participation.

Varieties of the Imperative

The imperative to involve learners in planning has been prominent in the literature on program planning and in the literature on instructional methods. Knowles (1980, 1984), for example, makes clear his position on the question of participation in planning when discussing the implications for practice of his andragogical assumptions:

> There seems to be a law (or at least, a tendency) of human nature that goes like this: human beings tend to feel committed to a decision (or an activity) to the extent that they have participated in making it (or planning it). Teachers of adults who do all the planning for their students, who come into the classroom and impose preplanned activities on them, typically experience apathy, resentment,

> and probably withdrawal. . . . Accordingly, a basic element in the technology of andragogy is the involvement of the learners in the process of planning their own learning, with the teacher serving as a procedural guide and content resource. (1980, p. 48)

Knowles seems to rest his case for participation in planning first on the validity of his andragogical assumptions and second on the impossibility of designing an educational activity for adults that they will be committed to even though they have no role in planning it. This is an example of what might be called the "universal imperative"--the principle applies regardless of the context, skills or expectations of the learners, skills of the instructional agent, time available, or type of learning. It represents an unwavering ideological position that values process because the process is consistent with a higher order set of values (like "democracy" or "student-centered learning").

Notwithstanding the contradictory findings reported in the literature, Ewert (1982) concluded that:

> The benefits of involving adult learners in defining their own needs and planning their own programs have been well documented. Research has found that this participation results in greater perceived relevance of the educational content, a more favorable attitude toward learning, a stronger commitment to the program, and a greater likelihood that an individual's learning objectives will be met. (p. 30)

Ewert's position seems to represent what might be called the "utilitarian imperative"--the principle applies where value is placed on relevance to the learner, favorable attitudes toward learning, strong learner commitment to the program, and so on. From this perspective, learners should be involved in planning because involvement produces these outcomes and these outcomes are important.

A third position is reflected in the work of Rosenblum (1985) who reached the following conclusion after reviewing the research literature:

> As we attempt to arrive at conclusions regarding the role of adults in program planning, it becomes clear that the outcomes we desire from our educational programs have a profound bearing on how we view planning. For the continuing educator working in a traditional setting where the major concerns are student achievement and student satisfaction, the findings of research, albeit somewhat contradictory, point to the conclusion that direct participation in planning may not alter student test scores or attitudes about the course in significant ways. What seems to be more important to participants than direct involvement in planning is that the course addresses their needs and concerns. Learners seem to be as pleased with and

> to do as well in a course created by proxy planners who have comparable needs and concerns as they are when they take part in the planning themselves. (p. 22)

Rosenblum's position might be called the "situational imperative"-- the principle applies when the circumstances of planning call for learner input, not because the act of providing the input will directly benefit the learner, but because the input will lead to the design of a program that is more consistent with participant expectations.

Varieties of Participation in Planning

The literature on program planning contains many suggestions about how practitioners should carry out the imperative. Two related questions can be used to organize an analysis of these suggestions and are important dimensions of the research designs used to study the benefits of participation in planning. The first question is, "At what points in the planning process are learners invited to participate?" This question is important in research because it determines the types of decisions that are considered open to learner input. Whether by design or by default, the researcher decides which planning decisions are to be influenced by the learner and which are beyond learner influence. The second question is, "What is the character of learner involvement in planning?" This question is important because it represents the researcher's operational definition of participation. In another sense, this question concerns the degree of influence that the learner can exercise over planning decisions--its answer determines whether participation will be trivial or substantive. Both of these questions have been addressed in the work of Douglah (1970), McGee (1984), and MacCallum-Carrier (1988).

Although some researchers do not provide detailed answers to both of these questions, enough detail is revealed to suggest two major problems with much of this research. The first problem concerns the lack of distinction between what might be called program planning decisions and instructional design decisions. Such a distinction is not easy to make in practice and can be criticized as overly artificial, but it is useful for analytical purposes. Program planning decisions establish the overall structure for a program including, for example, the format, location, time allotted, title, instructional personnel, and financial arrangements. These decisions are typically made in advance of announcing the offering of a program, so any learner participation in these decisions would be difficult to arrange, except by using what Rosenblum (1985) calls "proxy planners." Instructional design decisions concerning how the allotted instructional time will be used are often the primary responsibility of the instructor. Within the time allotted, the instructor may have great latitude in deciding what will happen and may actively engage the learners in what has been described by Millar, Morphet and Saddington (1986) as "curriculum negotiation" to decide collaboratively what specific goals will be pursued and in what way.

Of the studies included in this review, the majority appear to be concerned with learner participation in instructional design decisions rather than program planning decisions. For example, the studies reported by Arnold (1985), Cole and Glass (1977), Courtenay and Arnold (1988), McLoughlin (1971a; 1971b) and Moorehead (1977) describe participation in instructional design decisions but no learner involvement in broader decisions that established overall program structure. Some studies (Vedros, 1979; Vedros & Pankowski, 1980) reported that the "program" that learners were invited to plan collaboratively was part of an established series of courses; this raises questions about the types of decisions open to learner influence and consequently, the degree to which program structure is malleable.

A second problem with this research concerns the relative substantiveness of learner influence over planning decisions. Some researchers have attempted to assure substantive involvement in decision making by employing procedures like the Nominal Group Technique (Arnold, 1985; Courtenay & Arnold, 1988; Rosenblum, 1982; Rosenblum & Darkenwald, 1983; Vedros, 1979; Vedros & Pankowski, 1980). Semberger (1972) seems to be alone in attempting to reveal differential effects of various levels of learner participation in planning.

It remains easy to criticize many studies included in this review on the grounds that the participation of the learner in planning was trivial. Not only was the range of decisions open to learner influence severely restricted, but the operational definition of participation reduced the amount of influence over those decisions so that learner input became inconsequential. The following quotation from Moorehead (1977) illustrates this point:

> The method of learner participation was designed to be minimal. The experimental group received letters explaining that their comments concerning the subject matter under consideration for their in-service training course was vitally needed. They responded to a survey form which asked for their opinion of each topic area under consideration for their training course. (p. 593A)

Concluding Remarks

The imperative to involve learners in program planning is not likely to fade away even though researchers have failed to validate claims made regarding its efficacy. A review of this body of research suggests that it may be very difficult to resolve questions of efficacy--especially if the primary benefits of participation are thought to be positive attitude and increased achievement. A more productive approach may be to adopt the "situational imperative" discussed above and to plan theoretical and empirical work intended to identify those situations in which different types of learner participation are most likely to be effective in achieving whatever outcomes are considered desirable. The work of McKenzie (1981) and Sample (1985) illustrates the variety of factors that may influence the decision about how and under what circumstance learners should be involved in program planning.

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TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT--IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract

A national survey research project was conducted to determine what should be included in an undergraduate trainer preparation program. A major purpose fulfilled by the research was determining the appropriateness of teaching trainer competencies at the collegiate level. In addition, the researchers sought answers concerning kinds of training provided and the methodology used by senior trainers in American companies. Project results provide insight for collegiate educators involved in trainer preparation.

Statement of the Problem

A comprehensive literature search completed in fall 1986 revealed a limited research base concerning the role of corporate training and development personnel. Only fragmented information was available for university faculty to use in developing collegiate programs that prepare entry-level training personnel.

A national training and development research project investigating what should be included in a training and development undergraduate program was initiated during the spring of 1987 and concluded in the summer 1988. One of the major purposes that the researchers sought to fulfill was determining the appropriateness of teaching trainer competencies at the collegiate level. Descriptive information was sought concerning the kinds of training provided by training and development center and department personnel (e.g., entry-level technical training, technical-upgrade training, management-development training etc.) and the methodology used by training and development personnel (e.g., lecture, computer-assisted, role playing etc.).

Methodology

Traditionally, the undergraduate Business Education Program at The University of Georgia has been a teacher preparation program. Undergraduate student preparation has been geared toward preparing graduates for secondary and middle school teaching positions.

In 1985 a follow-up study was conducted to determine the kinds of employment obtained by students graduating between 1980 and 1984. The data revealed that approximately half of the graduates were employed in positions other than secondary or middle school teacher. Numerous graduates indicated that they were employed as entry-level trainers for hardware or software companies or did some training in conjunction with holding marketing related positions.

The Business Education (BE) faculty at The University of Georgia (UGA) began exploring the addition of a nonteaching program option for preparing entry-level business and office systems trainers. Several BE faculty members had trainer experience and considered trainer preparation a natural outgrowth of the BE curriculum.

The development of human resources has become a multibillion dollar proposition in American government and domestic and multinational companies. A persistent need exists for "trainer training," particularly training of personnel who work in office environments and who use information technology to perform their work related responsibilities. As teacher preparation institutions explore new markets, they are compelled to consider trainer preparation as a promising arena for growth.

Proposed curriculum content. The researchers proposed that the BE faculty consider incorporating validated trainer competencies (American Society for Training and Development, 1983) in a nonteaching degree program designed to train entry-level business and office systems trainers. With funding from both the BE Department and the UGA College of Education the researchers initiated a survey research project to determine the appropriateness of teaching trainer competencies at the collegiate level.

Population and sample selection. The population of the study included persons listed in the 1987-1988 Senior Trainer Roster for the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD). The Roster included names and addresses of 2,299 people employed as senior trainers with membership in ASTD. Five percent (115 persons) were selected to pilot test the questionnaire developed for the research project. A sample of 1,093 (half of the population after choosing the prospective pilot test participants) was selected for possible participation in the survey research project.

Instrument development. A valid questionnaire was constructed which included two parts--Part I pertaining to demographic information and Part II involving a listing of ASTD trainer competencies and three Likert-type scales. One of the Likert-type scales was for rating the appropriateness of teaching the trainer competencies at the collegiate level. A rating of 5 indicated "extremely appropriate," 4 denoted "appropriate," 3 depicted "undecided," 2 showed "inappropriate," and 1 revealed "extremely inappropriate." The second Likert-type scale was for indicating where each competency should be taught if not at the collegiate level. A third Likert-type scale was for classifying each competency as technical, human, or conceptual in nature. Only selected data obtained in Part I and from the first Likert-type scale in Part II are reported in this paper. Forty-two members (37 percent) of the pilot group completed and returned usable questionnaires. The questionnaire's reliability coefficient of .91 was computed using data obtained from the pilot test respondents. After successfully pilot testing the instrument, the researchers mailed questionnaires to the selected sample of 1,093 senior trainers. Two hundred eighty-two senior trainers (26 percent) completed and returned usable questionnaires. Data contained in these questionnaires were added to the pilot test data for data analysis purposes. Therefore, data from 324 senior trainers were analyzed.

Data analyses. Data described in this paper were analyzed as follows. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze demographic data related to (a) participant's level of education, (b) participant's major for highest level of education, (c) size of training department in company where participant is employed, (d) kinds of training provided, and (e) training methods commonly provided or used. The chi-square test was used to determine whether a systematic relationship existed between participant's level of education and appropriateness of trainer competencies being taught at the collegiate level.

Description of the Data

Major research findings are as follows.

Level of education. One hundred eight-three (57 percent) of the participants indicated that they had obtained a master's degree. One participant did not indicate his/her level of education, and 14 checked high school as their highest level of education. Sixty-seven (21 percent) expressed having a bachelor's degree, and 59 (18 percent) indicated they had obtained a doctoral degree.

Major for highest level of education. Of the 242 participants who reported having graduate degrees, 72 (30 percent) indicated that they majored in some area of education. Thirty (12 percent) majored in some area of business administration, and 24 (10 percent) majored in human resources development or human resources management. The other participants with doctoral degrees majored in a wide variety of areas. The graduate education majors given most frequently were adult education (17), counseling (12), and educational administration (10). Of the 67 participants who gave their highest level of education as the bachelor's degree, the mode (8) indicated that they majored in business administration. Only four responded that they had majored in education. Of the 14 participants who indicated high school as their highest level of education only two noted majoring in a specific area--math. Twelve expressed that they studied a general curriculum.

Size of training department. The modal response to the question about size of training department was one to five employees. Fifteen respondents did not indicate the size of their training department. Sixty respondents expressed that they work in a department of 6-10 people; 36 work in a department of 11-15 employees. Nineteen work in a department of 16-20; five work in a department of 21 to 25 people. Forty-eight reported that they work in a training department with more than 25 employees.

Kinds of training provided. Of the different kinds of training listed on the questionnaire, entry-level technical training, special-purpose skills training, technical-upgrade training, management-development training, and attitude-adjustment training are provided by at least 50 percent of the respondent companies. Less than 25 percent of the respondent companies provide basic skills training.

Training methods used. Less than 50 percent of the respondent companies use the apprenticeship, formal tutoring, contract school, job rotation, in-basket, teleconferencing, computer-assisted, vendor school, and programmed instruction methods of training. Greater than 50 percent of the respondent companies use the informal tutoring, formal class, videotape, and role play methods of training with their employees.

Participant's level of education and perception of the appropriateness of competencies being taught at the collegiate level. No relationship was found to exist between the variables participant's level of education and perception of the appropriateness of competencies being taught at the collegiate level except due to chance. Of the 31 trainer competencies that participants were asked to rate according to appropriateness of being taught at the collegiate level, 16 had modal reponses of "extremely appropriate." These competencies included (a) adult learning understanding, (b) counseling skills, (c) feedback skills, (d) futuring skills, (e) group processing skills, (f) intellectual versatility, (g) model building skills, (h) objectives preparation skills, (i) organization behavior understanding, (j) personnel/HR field understanding, (k) presentation skills, (l) questioning skills, (m) research skills, (n) training and development field understanding, (o) training and development techniques understanding, and (p) writing skills. Fourteen competencies had modal responses of "appropriate." These included (a) A/V skills, (b) career development knowledge, (c) competency identification skills, (d) computer competence, (e) cost-benefit analysis skills, (f) data reduction skills, (g) delegation skills, (h) facilities skills, (i) industry understanding, (j) library skills, (k) negotiation skills, (l) performance observation skills, (m) records management skills, and (n) relationship versatility skills. All the competencies except three were rated by a majority of respondents as being either "appropriate" or "extremely appropriate." The three which a majority of respondents rated "extremely inappropriate," "inappropriate," or "undecided" were delegation skills, facilities skills, and organization understanding.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the previously mentioned findings. Senior trainers generally have at least a bachelor's degree. Graduate study among senior trainers is common. Although graduate study in education is popular among senior trainers, undergraduate study in education is uncommon.

Typically, senior trainers work in a training department which includes one to five employees.

Entry-level technical training, special-purpose skills training, technical-upgrade training, management-development training, and attitude-adjustment training are frequently provided. Basic skills training is less popular. Common training methods used by senior trainers are informal tutoring, formal class, videotape, and role playing.

Education level does not affect trainer perception of the appropriateness of trainer competencies being taught at the collegiate level. The ASTD trainer competencies are appropriate for teaching at the collegiate level with the exception of delegation skills, facilities skills, and organization understanding.

Special implications of the research findings and conclusions will be shared in the researchers' oral presentation.

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The Measurement of Cognitive Ability in Adult Basic Education

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Rationale and Research Objectives

The notion of measurable cognitive ability is a seductive one for educators; responsibility for nurturing academic growth can be alleviated when one subscribes to a theory of pre-existing ability. Frequently, the interaction between cognitive ability or aptitude and achievement is employed to set expectations for learning and provides the logical foundation for defining and addressing remedial approaches to instruction. Crudely and somewhat simplistically expressed, if a person's achievement test scores lag behind his or her aptitude test scores, then proper educational action may result in growth; however, if a person's achievement scores and intelligence scores are congruent (even if they are both low), he or she is "functioning at level" and there is little reason to seek educational alternatives.

This "discrepancy approach" has certain intuitive appeal. But, in order to be operationalized within educational settings, certain conditions pertaining to validity must be achieved. The most obvious condition is that cognitive aptitude and academic achievement must be validly and reliably measured. As soon as one begins to look beyond reliability and concurrent validity (e.g., measures of association with other "established" tests), it becomes clear that the validity of cognitive ability measures is problematical. Face or content validity--though often denigrated by measurement experts--can be used to evaluate at least some of the test-maker's claims regarding achievement tests; an educator should be able to tell simply by examining a test whether or not it is measuring appropriate aspects of reading or mathematics. However, examination of cognitive ability or intelligence tests does not reveal information which can attest to the validity of the scores they generate. In the absence of thorough knowledge about theories of intelligence and about sophisticated scaling techniques, educators are limited in their abilities to critically examine whether or not derived scores are in fact meaningful. However, in deferring to the "greater wisdom" of psychometricians and publishers with regard to definition and measurement, educators acquiesce to certain assumptions concerning the nature of cognitive ability: (a) that cognitive ability or aptitude is conceptually distinct from (if mathematically related to) achievement and (b) that cognitive ability may be contrasted to current academic achievement in order to make diagnostic decisions and educational predictions.

In a recent study of ABE students in Iowa, Beder and Valentine (1987) allowed such assumptions to stand and implicitly supported the use of aptitude scores in gauging educational expectations:

> On each achievement measure, Iowa's average ABE student is more than a full standard deviation below the mean of the norming group. Generally speaking, these scores are not surprising when one considers the cognitive ability scores . . . . A comparison of the cognitive ability scores and achievement scores suggests that students are achieving slightly better than one might expect in reading but more poorly than one might expect in mathematics. (p.17)

The present research represents a considerably more skeptical look at the data on which Beder and Valentine based their assertion. The research was guided by the broad question, "How useful is the measurement of cognitive ability in Adult Basic Education?" In order to answer that question, three research objectives were set: (1) To investigate, through principal component analysis and factor analysis, the underlying dimensions of cognitive ability as measured by a statistically sophisticated and widely used psycho-educational battery, (2) To determine, through correlation and regression analyses, the relationship between cognitive ability and two measures of achievement, reading and mathematics, and (3) To determine, through correlation analysis, the relationships between cognitive ability and a number of academic and non-academic variables.

Description of the Data

The data used for these analyses were collected as part of a larger study (Beder & Valentine, 1987). The Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery (WJPEB) was administered by trained administrators to a large random sample (n=153) of ABE students in Iowa; background information was also collected via personal, structured interviews at the time of testing. In addition, a smaller subsample of students (n=47), along with their ABE teachers, participated in telephone follow-up interviews six months after testing. The WJEPB is described by Kaufman (1985) in the *Ninth Mental Measurements Yearbook* as a "technically excellent instrument with exceptional reliability and concurrent validity" (p. 1765). The battery is organized into three parts: Part One consists of 12 cognitive ability subtests, Part Two consists of 10 achievement subtests, and Part Three consists of 5 interest subtests. Scores are typically interpreted via weighted combinations of subtests called Cognitive Ability, Achievement, and Interest Clusters. According to one of the test authors (Woodcock, 1978), the battery's "comprehensiveness . . . and wide age range norming from age three to age 80 and older make possible an extensive variety of applications . . ." (p. 4). Of the many possible scores which can be derived from the test results, only three were used in the present analyses: Broad Cognitive Ability, Reading Achievement, and Mathematics Achievement. In addition, the raw scores from the 12 subtests defining cognitive ability were employed for the component and factor analyses.

What is Measured by a Test of Cognitive Ability?

The WJPEB, Part One, yields numerous cognitive ability scores, including Broad Cognitive Ability, Verbal Ability, Reasoning, Perceptual Speed, and Memory. Each of these "cluster" scores is derived through the weighted combination of observed scores on twelve subtests (Picture Vocabulary, Spatial Relations, Memory for Sentences, Visual-Auditory Learning, Blending, Quantitative Concepts, Visual Matching, Antonyms-Synonyms, Analysis-Synthesis, Numbers Reversed, Concept Formation, and Analogies). However, neither the logic for subtest selection nor the mathematical derivation of the cluster weightings is adequately described in the technical materials accompanying the WJPEB; despite their attractive labels, attributing meaning to the cluster scores demands a act of faith. Consequently, it was decided that the best way to discover what the test was measuring was to conduct exploratory analyses of the observed covariation among the raw scores. Before examining multifactor solutions, a single principal component was derived from the twelve subtest scores. This was done in an attempt to discover the extent to which a unidimensional conception of cognitive ability was tenable. The single component explained 49.4% of the overall variance, with no subtest loading on the component below .55 and individual communality estimates ranging from a low of .31 (Blending) to a high of .67 (Analogies). Generally speaking, the subtests requiring higher order cognitive processes loaded more highly on the component than did those involving lower order processes. Of course, the labeling of a single component is largely arbitrary, given the lack of divergent factors to assist in definition. Traditionally, this procedure yields a factor labeled as g, which has been hypothesized as a measure of general ability. More recently, Kaufman and O'Neal (1986) has presented evidence that this same factor is the measurement of general achievement. Because it is not possible to measure innate or genetic attributes as distinct from achievement (Ebel, 1974), it seems logical to conclude that this factor might represent either developed ability or developed achievement, depending on the content of the test and the characteristics of the examinees.

Although the single component accounted for nearly half of the variance in the observed scores, exploratory factor analyses, requesting between two and six factors and orthogonal and oblique rotations, were conducted in an attempt to better understand the nature of cognitive ability as measured by the WJPEB. The optimal solution, based on conceptual clarity and explanatory power, was the three factor oblique solution, which accounted for 66.3% of the overall variance. Three conceptually distinct factors were identified: Problem Solving Ability (emphasizing new learning strategies and complex, abstract reasoning); Verbal Ability (emphasizing crystallized knowledge, largely in the form of vocabulary development); and Combinational Logic (emphasizing lower-order visual and auditory discrimination and the ability to construct a "whole" from its component parts).

How is Cognitive Ability Related to Achievement?

Understanding the factor structure of cognitive ability as measured by the WJPEB allows one to draw conclusions about the constructs being measured by the tests but does not establish the discriminant validity of cognitive ability as distinct from more routinely used measures of reading and mathematics achievement. Yet, such a distinction is essential to many of the applications suggested by the test authors. For example, Woodcock (1978) states that

> The achievement-aptitude feature of the Battery makes it particularly useful for identifying pupils with learning deficits. The Battery may be used to identify and describe discrepancies between potential and achievement and to identify individuals in need of special evaluation and/or services, such as individuals with a learning deficit in reading or mathematics. (p. 5)

Such a statement directly conflicts with the thinking of some leading psychometricians. According to Anastasi (1982), "It should be recognized . . . that no distinction between aptitude and achievement tests can be rigidly applied" (p. 394). Humphreys (1974) suggests that aptitude and achievement tests differ only in degree and fall along a continuum concerning breadth of item coverage, variety of experience tapped, and recency of learning sampled. Yet Woodcock's statement proceeds on the belief that the theoretical distinction between achievement and aptitude has been operationalized in the WJPEB to the point where we can interpret and mathematically combine two unique and independent constructs for examinees of all ages.

In planning regression analyses to determine the relationship between the WJPEB's ability and achievement measures, the authors nearly fell into the trap of believing the test-makers' labels, assuming that "aptitude causes achievement," and therefore regressing the ability measure (Broad Cognitive Ability, Full Scale) on each of the achievement measures (Reading Achievement and Mathematics Achievement). After consideration, however, we came to the conclusion that, from a standpoint of ecological validity, such an analysis would be somehow backwards. Our reasoning was simple: Most ABE programs already utilize tests of Reading and Mathematics Achievement; if we want to understand the contribution that the measurement of cognitive ability could make to ABE instruction, then cognitive ability should be the dependent variable, with the achievement measures serving as regressors approximating the kind of information available to many ABE teachers. If achievement scores could account for most of the variance in Broad Cognitive Ability, then the unique contribution of information about the latter to ABE instruction would be minimal. Such analyses, of course, would imply no notion of causation or of prediction in the normal sense; rather, the analyses were intended only to explain.

Simple regression of Reading Achievement on Broad Cognitive Ability was substantial (r=.82, R-square=.67), as was the regression of Mathematics on that same dependent variable (r=.75, R-square=.56). When combined into a multiple regression equation, the two achievement tests explain 76.8% of the variance in Broad Cognitive Ability. When examinee's age, which was observed to be a significant negative correlate of both Reading Achievement and Broad Cognitive Ability, is added into the equation as a third independent variable, 78.1% of the variance in Broad Cognitive Ability is explained.

Although the external validity of these findings is unknown, for this random sample of learners, very little unique information could be obtained from cognitive ability testing. Using the equation, Broad Cognitive Ability=.53 Reading + .42 Math - .12 Age, cognitive ability scores could theoretically be calculated with a good deal of accuracy from three variables commonly accessible to ABE teachers. That is not to say that such a calculation ever need be made; rather, teachers who base their instruction on information about achievement scores and, to a much lesser degree, on age, will in essence be acting nearly the same as they would after taking the time and effort (teachers' and learners') to administer a test of cognitive ability.

What are the Correlates of Cognitive Ability?

The final analysis conducted was, in some respects, the most obvious. In the analyses so far, the relationships between cognitive ability and achievement tests have been explored, as have the intercorrelations among the subtests that define cognitive ability. The more important analysis perhaps would seek to discover the extent to which cognitive ability as measured by the WJPEB is related to non-test variables. Fortunately, the data set used for these analyses contained dozens of background variables. After examining the list of variables, nine background variables for which it was possible to posit some possible relationship with cognitive ability were selected for correlational analysis: age, last grade completed, income, gender, employment status (dichotomous), hours spent in community activities, life satisfaction (a 3-point scale), satisfaction with program (collected six months after initial testing), and teacher's subjective judgements of basic skills progress (the sum of two 5-point Likert-type items rating reading and mathematics progress, collected six months after initial testing). A 1x9 correlation matrix was calculated and examined and, owing to the number of significance tests implicit in such an examination, alpha was set conservatively at .01. With two exceptions, cognitive ability demonstrated no significant relationship--causal or otherwise--to any of these variables. One of the exceptions was age, which is discussed in the preceding section. The second exception at first seems more promising: Teacher's judgement of progress in basic skills. However, additional analyses undercut any cause for optimism. First, both reading achievement and mathematics achievement correlated more highly with teachers' ratings than did cognitive ability. Second, when the covariation between cognitive ability and achievement scores is controlled, the residual variance of cognitive ability exhibits a near-zero correlation with teacher ratings (r=.08).

Conclusions

The results of these analyses argue against the utility of measuring cognitive ability in ABE programs. Although the factor structure reveals some basic psychological processes that are theoretically interesting, pragmatically speaking, they are relatively unimportant. Reading and Mathematics Achievement measures appear to contain most of the important information that could be gleaned by measuring cognitive ability. Ultimately, adult basic educators have to ask themselves, "Should we think about people in terms of their scores or patterns of performance on general ability tests or in terms of their scores and patterns of performance on tests which tap specific, educationally relevant skills?" Since the predictive yield of the former is virtually non-existent, the answer should be easy.

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LITERACY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESSFUL PARTICIPATION IN ADULT EDUCATION: A CROSS-CULTURAL APPROACH THROUGH EXPECTANCY VALENCE

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Abstract

Fifty-eight literacy students in Great Britain and the United States were interviewed to determine encouragers and barriers to participation. Findings suggested that individuals persisted because of internal motivation and support of teachers and fellow students and in spite of family discouragement, fear of failure, little time, and previous negative educational experiences.

Statement of the Problem

Adult literacy has been targeted as a national concern for many years (Harman & Balmuth, 1987). Freire and Macedo (1987) claimed that "the crisis of illiteracy has usually been relegated to Third World countries. More and more, however, illiteracy is threatening the continued development of highly industrialized nations" (p. vii). Programs established to serve the diverse populations of literacy students have provided opportunities for adults to gain the skills needed not only to function but to flourish in today's advanced society. Even with the opportunities provided by these programs, many illiterate adults are not choosing to participate, or even more puzzling, are not persisting through a program until completion.

In the United States alone, over 60 million adults are illiterate or functionally illiterate (Kozol, 1985). "However, only two to four percent of this target population participate in Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs" (Hunter & Harmon, 1979, cited in Grede & Friedlander, 1981, p. 1). Statistics as of October 1988 report that about 3 million adults in the United States were enrolled in ABE programs in 1987 with 65% of those at the zero to eighth grade levels (AAACE, 1988). Furthermore, attrition within adult education literacy classes is a growing problem with national estimates being a 50%-70% dropout rate (Harman & Balmuth, 1987). The dropout rate for Columbus, Ohio, Adult Basic Education (ABE) literacy students is estimated to be 70-80% (Johnson, 1987).

Studies have targeted various tangible reasons for nonparticipation and dropout including lack of money, inability to reach the teaching facility, and lack of child care. In addition, there are influences such as negative perceptions of the value of education (Kerka, 1986), lack of support from family or friends, feelings of inadequacy and low self-esteem (Lewis, 1985), as well as course relevancy and goal clarity (Garrison, 1985). Chall, Heron and Hilferty (1987) noted that dropout rates increased with the level of poverty. Still other studies suggested that deficiencies in programs were a reason for poor attendance.

Research on participation and persistence is abundant but few studies have addressed how factors which initially served as barriers/encouragers to participation may change in their roles related to persistence in educational programs. Additionally, few studies have argued the existence of a subculture of "adult students" whose characteristics defy exclusive membership in a great culture. This study sought to address both of these issues by examining adult student experiences in two "great" cultures, the United States and Great Britain, and by approaching the adult student experience as a set of interconnected perceptions of past, present, and future.

Purpose

A basic tenet for this study was adults share common experiences, thoughts, motivations, decision-making strategies and incentives related to lifelong learning, which are essentially "untouched" by the "great" culture to which they belong but that actually place them all together into a specific subculture. Members of this subculture, adult learners pursuing additional formal education, share a world view and symbolic representation of that world view. Members are bound by their convictions, determination, and their beliefs and values related to adult education. Simply stated, adult learners, regardless of nationality, language, or the "great" culture to which they belong, will exhibit similar motivations, hopes and dreams related to continuing adult education.

Using a model based on the expectancy-valence theory of human motivation (Vroom, 1964) proposed by Van Tilburg in an earlier study (1987), this research focused on the perceived barriers and encouragers to participation and persistence in adult basic education occurring within two "great" cultures, the U.S. and Great Britain. Research questions addressed types of encouragers and barriers, past and present experiences and expectations related to formal education, and perceived changes within the individual as a result of participation and persistence with the focus being to determine whether indeed there is a subculture of adult students which crosses the major cultures of those individuals.

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was adults enrolled in Adult Basic Education programs in the U.S. and Great Britain. According to Hunter and Harman (1979, cited in Grede & Friedlander, 1981), "Adult basic education programs are intended for persons who are 16 years of age or older, are out of school, and have not completed high school. These programs include courses from the first through the eighth grade levels in reading, language, arithmetic, English as a second language, as well as General Education Development courses which prepare students to pass a GED test and receive a certificate." This definition of ABE programs adequately described both target populations included in this study.

The accessible population for this study was students enrolled in an Adult Basic Education/General Equivalency Diploma program of Columbus (Ohio) Public Schools Continuing Education and students enrolled in one of four adult education programs leading to examinations for certification conducted by the Inner London Education Authority, London, England. A total of 58 individuals participated in the study (29 from each country).

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were gathered during Spring and Summer 1988. Students and teachers associated with both programs were interviewed using structured open-ended questions relating to past educational history, perceptions of encouragers/ barriers, support systems, the nature of success, and future expectations. Interviews were audio-taped and fully transcribed. Data were analyzed using the scissors and sort method of content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Those interviewed were selected by teachers/administrators using a process of elimination based on availability and willingness. Almost all students available were also willing to be interviewed. For many in the U.S. portion of the study, the interview was the first opportunity they had had to talk about themselves related to school experiences. Not so for those in London as discussions about goals, aspirations, fears, and successes were a regular part of the adult educational process. In either case, those interviewed were very cooperative and appeared to enjoy the process.

Interviews lasted one to two hours and often involved emotional sequences of sadness, anger, embarrassment, and determination. (In fact, the word determination became the "buzz word" for the British interviews.) The typical interview would begin with a quiet, almost hushed, discussion of past educational experiences. The progression would include a very matter of fact description of personal family history.

Emotion would begin to appear in the interview when "barriers and encouragers" to the decision to return to school were discussed. Issues of family/friend support, embarrassment, fear of failure, feelings of "being dumb," and frustration with position in life all surfaced as factors related to the initial decision to return to school. And most of these factors carried with them experiences deeply connected to the educational system previously experienced. Voices were raised, tears were shed, fists were pounded, heads and eyes were lowered, but in almost all interviews, smiles appeared when the future was discussed.

Results

Both dominant trends and unique characteristics were noted as students' reflections on past, present, and anticipated future experiences with education were assessed. The hypothesis suggesting that membership in the "great" culture, i.e., U.S./Great Britain, would not have extreme influence on the world view of the adult students from those cultures was fairly well supported.

Results, expressed as general conclusions with supporting quotes, have been organized into three sections: Barriers/Encouragers to Participation, Barriers/Encouragers to Persistence, and Perceptions of Success and the Future.

Barriers/Encouragers to Participate

Barriers to the initial return to school included anticipated embarrassment, the anticipated low probability of success (fear of failure), and previous negative educational experiences. "I was frightened of people laughing and staring at me. Saying I was a dumb girl or something coming in here." "I always did bad when I had tests when I was little so I thought I'd never pass a test." "It's like laying your personal self naked." "I was terrified. Just going in. I walked up the stairs, came back down, had a cigarette, walked up again, came back down, had another cigarette, and I think I was on my third or fourth trip out when the tutor came out and said 'Are you with the Return to Study group?' and I mumbled something about yes and she dragged me in." "I would say, 'I'd love to go to school,' and my friends would say 'why don't you?' and I'd say, 'well, for the simple reason I'm not smart.' I thought you had to be smart to go to school so I kept putting it off."

Encouragers to participation included needing education for a job, for self-improvement ("for me"), for children and avoiding current conditions. "Money, there's no shame in that." "You make up your mind that you wanna do it for you, not for nobody else, just for you." "I just wanted to get out of the house rather than just sit there." "A single reason I came back is my kids. I don't want them growing up just seeing me on welfare. I don't want them following in the same footsteps Mommy did. Cause Mommy has made mistakes." "I'm determined to get this. I never had a high school diploma and I've always wanted one." "Careerwise, it has to be for my career. I don't want any more semi-skilled, dead-end jobs."

Barriers/Encouragers to Persistence

Barriers to persistence were identified when the question was asked "Did you ever feel like quitting?" Responses were related to lack of moral support, arrangements for class, and the difficulty of the material. "My mom would say, 'Oh you can't do fashion. You can't do secretarial.' There's always some reason. 'You can't do anything.' Nobody's really encouraged me, just myself." "Sometimes I don't want to be here because of my husband give me a hard time. I try to explain to him but he don't understand. He told me when I marry, it wasn't to go to school. I told him it wasn't to get a job either." "The minute you don't know something, it push you back a little bit where you feel, gosh, the mountain is getting higher to climb." "Having to get the kids off to school and then get here...some days you'd get up and feel 'Oh, I don't want to do this.'"

Encouragers to persistence came mostly in the form of self-motivation tactics and outside support from friends, family, teachers and other students. "I would talk to myself and say, 'You can do it.' I just kept telling myself, 'You want to do it and you can do it.' I just kept up with that and worked harder." "My fear is the math. I also got troubles in English. So I ask my son or take his school book and he explain it down to the level that I can understand it." "Every time I say me prayers, I ask me Lord to help me get me GED." "I just say, 'Girl, it can't be no worse than what it was; it's got to be better.'" "Sometimes if you've really worked hard and nothing's going right and all of a sudden one little thing might click, and you think, 'Oh, well, I'm not so stupid after all.'"

Perceptions of Success and the Future

Success in education was operationalized by most respondents as an increase in confidence and intelligence. Additional indicators of success were the potential for a job and the fact that other people looked at the person differently now. "I'm more confident. I don't know where I'm going but I know where I'm at and I feel like I could cope with anything life can throw at me." "Others say I've got more confident and I don't talk about babies all the time." "I'm a lot more confident. I'm not gonna agree with my husband just because I haven't got an opinion. I found meself more opinionated about things." "Those things that were so asleep in my head, I didn't realize it 'til I got to school that nouns and verbs, I knew what they were but they were just asleep in my head." "Oh, I feel a lot smarter than I was." "My husband, he usually, he always put me down. But now he says I can do it, I think he accepted the idea." "I've changed. I'm happy with myself. I feel great. I feel like I have a purpose in life."

When discussing the future, many students were unclear about their goals. "Well, I'd like to go on but I'm not sure if that's really it because I'm not sure of what I want to do when I leave." "I don't really know. Hopefully it will lead to getting a reasonably paying job."

Some students, however, were very clear about their future expectations. "After I finish, I can drive a truck locally and go to the community college." "Go to the community college. I want to become certified so I can go anywhere."

Conclusions

Most individuals interviewed described backgrounds which had negative experiences with formal education. A major barrier to the return to school was the anticipated repeat of those negative experiences (failure, embarrassment, difficulty of the work). In reality, those individuals found opposite experiences upon the return (support of teachers, success). The perceived barriers to participation were not actualized; in fact, those initial barriers dissolved. However, a new set of barriers to persistence took their place (lack of support from family, being able to arrange for school).

Encouragers to participate were clearly related to individual motivation to succeed as were the encouragers to persist. An individual chose to participate "for me" and continued through the process by focusing on that "for me" attitude.

The two populations (Great Britain/U.S.) did not differ on the basic encouragers and barriers. Most differences between British and American respondents came in how they experienced the support of their ABE teachers and fellow students. The British were much more group-oriented, spending actual learning time discussing individual problems and past experiences. This situation did not occur in American classes and the encouragement to persist came mostly from within, in the form of "self talk."

Implications for the scientific community relate directly to the use of a qualitative data collection method to investigate such a vital topic as literacy as Chall, Heron and Hilferty (1987) have suggested. The model performed well in the guiding of this study and holds promise to future investigations of participation and persistence in any adult learner population.

Implications for practitioners may be more evident in a study such as this, because very specific information, with in-depth explanation to aid in understanding, can be used immediately in the practice of adult literacy education. Administrators of the programs included in this study are already using interim data reports to make changes in their programs.

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Use of Grounded Theory in Determining Select Factors Influencing Life Long Learning of Professional Nurses

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influenced some professional nurses in their lifelong learning. Using grounded theory, six categories, their properties, and two propositions were identified.

Introduction

The occurrence of dramatic changes in the entire health care delivery system and their attendant consequences to both professional nursing and the consumers of these services bring additional importance to the fact that change is the only major constant in the environment. Approximately 1,000,000 professional nurses are practicing in the United States today and that makes them a major adult learner population.

For the most part, the professional nursing organizations have stressed voluntary participation in continuing learning but there is considerable variation in the type and extent of the learning activities undertaken. Some authors have identified the pre-service educational programs as the logical place for development and fostering of life long learning (Cooper, 1973; Houle, 1980).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine factors that influence the professional nurse in his/her pursuit of life long continuing professional learning. Many aspects of professionalization have been explored in regard to the practicing nurse but to date no specific factors or motivational influences have been identified in regard to continuing formal learning for this group of adult learners.

Definition of Terms

The following terms have been defined for purposes of clarification and consistency in this study:

Lifelong Leaning: self-initiated growth distributed across the life span and undertaken to optimize an individual's knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The focus can be personal and/or professional with learning activities occurring in formal and informal settings.

Continued Formal Learning: conventional, planned, orderly and/or systematic learning activities and experiences leading to a diploma or a degree.

Methodology

Qualitative approaches are particularly suited to those fields or domains where there is need to enlarge the body knowledge. The method selected for this study was grounded theory, developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

In grounded theory, the researcher serves as the primary research data collection instrument and analyst, even though formal instruments or tools are used to facilitate consistency in data collection activities (Merriam & Simpson, 1984). This method concerns itself with procedures that elicit data that are richly descriptive of subjects' experiences or perceptions of the subjects themselves. Grounded theory is primarily concerned with categories, properties, and hypotheses or propositions that emerge from the data, and, as such, are grounded in the data themselves. Data are usually collected through interviews or participant observation techniques. As the researcher begins to gather data, coding and analysis are going on simultaneously.

Constant comparative analysis is the primary technique employed in grounded theory. This involves comparing each piece of data with every other piece. The process also considers joint collection and analysis of data, along with comparing segments of data within and between groups. Previous incidents are compared with the same and different groups, in an effort to gain insights that assist in the finalization of categories, properties and hypotheses. Constant comparative analysis involves several activities and provides a measure of flexibility in the process. Activities involved are: (1) the development of categories, properties, and related propositions; (2) the definition of theoretical properties of categories as data emerge and fit existing categories until the categories become saturated with no new categories or properties observed in the data; (3) further reduction and/or refinement of categories to concise, highly conceptual categories; and (4) refinement of categories and their interrelationships that evolve as substantive or formal theory, presented in discursive form or as a set of propositions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Operationalizing the technique of constant comparative analysis requires the development of a method of coding that goes on hand in hand with the collection and analysis of data. Through coding, which is a form of conceptualization, ideas, patterns, and themes are identified. Coding starts by examining each incident, phrase, line, paragraph, and/or situation and trying to decide just what each datum is an indication of in the development of concepts and eventual categories. Wilson (1985) offered three types of coding that can be utilized: substantive, or open codes; selective codes, and theoretical codes. Substantive, or open codes, were described by Wilson as "words used by participants themselves. They are the terms used to describe 1) dimensions, 2) properties, 3) conditions, 4) strategies, or 5) consequences" (p. 418). Selective codes are used to identify similarities and differences within the substantive codes. These are the beginning categories and core variables and assist the analyst in establishing the properties of the category. This form of coding assists in moving from the more concrete descriptions of the data to conceptualizations in more abstract form. This process goes on until indicates that the categories are saturated.

The final coding, theoretical, consists of determining the relationships among the categories and culminates in the formation of propositions. Once this point is reached, the researcher is ready to show how the data, codes, categories, and the resulting relationships come together to form a final integrated scheme that represents all the major patterns of the data (Wilson, 1985).

Data Collection

One priority to be addressed was the identification of a group of professional nurses who were lifelong learners. A description of a "professional nurse life long learner" was developed using characteristics of "high learners" developed by Tough (1971). The description developed stated: Acknowledged Professional Nurse Life Long Learners are nurses (1) with baccalaureate preparation in nursing who are competent professional practitioners; (2) have a strong commitment to plan and achieve major personal and professional goals; (3) take an active role in maximizing their potential to continue to learn and explore the full range of their abilities; (4) select and direct their career plans, and who are essentially satisfied with their achievements; (5) plan, develop and select learning activities appropriate to personal and professional goals.

The data for this study were obtained through purposeful sampling. Individuals were nominated by their peers based on the above criteria developed by the researcher. The nominations were made by selected constituents of the Illinois Nurses' Association, the established nursing organization representing professional nurses in the state of Illinois. Twenty-four professional nurses, all white females, were nominated by their districts and 23 agreed to participate in the study.

Data were collected utilizing a partially structured interview. An interview guide was developed to make sure all of the areas of interest to the researcher had been covered in the course of the interview. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed, and the process of constant comparative analysis was initiated.

As the information was reviewed, the researcher looked for common terms, phrases and ideas that occurred in the data. After the interviews had been transcribed, the text of each was studied and reviewed several times and compared with the other interviews to get a sense of commonalities and differences that existed in the comments of the nominees. The ideas, themes, and phrases were recorded and tentatively identified as substantive codes. In each instance, review of the data was compared with the previously analyzed data. The constant comparing of what had been coded from the first interviews and what emerged from the subsequent interview data went on throughout the data analysis phase.

Two experts, both with experience and credentials in the field of education, agreed to review the data and the tentative categories and properties with the researcher. In most instances there was agreement with the coding process. In some areas, further collapsing of properties was suggested or transference of properties from one category to another was recommended for clarity and consistency. The final list of categories and properties reflect this process. and consisted of the following: Intrapersonal; Socialization/Developmental; Socialization/Professional; Enrichments; Restraints; and Empowerment.

The identification of 6 conceptual categories and their properties signaled the completion of the substantive and selective coding phases of the data analysis. The final step in the coding process dealt with the determination of relationships among the categories. Two major propositions were formulated to complete the coding process. These propositions are:

1. Life long learning is a value developed very early in life through a supportive family environment, as a part of the socialization process, and is strengthened in the professional education program (nursing).

2. The major outcome of life long learning for the professional nurse is an expanded personal and professional knowledge and understanding of self that provides a source of empowerment.

Discussion of Findings

Based on the data, both heredity and environment were identified as primary contributors to the development of life long learning but the essence came from the individual. The nurturing aspect involved the individual's commitment, need for challenge, and the desire to know and the presence of an environment conducive to the fostering of these elements. The family, especially the parents, provided the environment in which the fostering of life learning could and did occur. These findings concur with those of Houle (1961).

In regard to the role of the pre-service curriculum as an influencing factor, the outcome was not as clear cut. When questioned about the role of the pre-service curriculum in regard to fostering continuing learning, most nominees were hesitant or non-specific. Based on the data, it was concluded that pre-service curricula did have an influencing effect on the students' commitment to lifelong learning but the effect was informal and/or incidental for the most part, occurring chiefly through the professional socialization process.

At the graduate level, nominees had a very different response. Most nominees could clearly relate courses and program objectives aimed at fostering continuing learning. Many cited examples of being able to concentrate more on conceptual activities and self-directed learning since they were comfortable with the technical aspects of their nursing role and felt they were competent practitioners. There are many reasons for the nominees' comments. There was opportunity for growth and time to gain a new perspective in relation to their professional practice and their careers. Another possibility is the process of maturity. This finding raises a question that is very timely today -- just what is the appropriate entry level for professional nursing practice?

Most nominees were in agreement that continuing learning is a part of the role expectation of the professional nurse. The majority of the nominees held the conviction that continuing learning was inherent in their concept of the role of the professional nurse. This group of "high learners" followed a course that differed from that of the typical professional nurse. The nominees' pursuit of graduate education, as well as ongoing continuing education activities to keep updated and competent in their specific roles, presented a model that is occurring more frequently in today's nursing world but which is still far from the norm for most professional nurses.

Mentors and role models played an important role in most of the nominees' lives. This finding supports the findings of Bolton (1980) concepts of mentor and role model. The data suggested that role modeling was more frequently seen in situations where the practitioner was in the process of establishing the professional role and incorporating examples and behaviors into that role. Mentors were more common in the world of students at the master's and/or doctoral levels, where a different set of professional skills and knowledge, roles, and directions were evolving.

The nominees in this study found support in their pursuit of continuing formal education through conventional channels -- their spouses, family, mentors, and peers. The problems they encountered were those experienced by women like themselves in today's world -- wives/mothers/career women/ students who face similar problems when trying to balance multiple roles within a limited time frame.

The findings showed a wide range of enrichments, both personal and professional. As beneficial and welcome as these rewards were, most of the nominees stated that the major benefit was something more, something that made it possible to exert control over their personal and professional lives. The term selected to convey this concept was empowerment. In searching the literature for similar findings, the work of Boshier (1977) described somewhat the same idea. Boshier's focus was motivational research which described adult learners as either "life-chance" or "life-space" oriented. He stated that "life-space" individuals symbolize self-actualized persons who seek learning to expand their environment.

Another source relevant to the findings of this study was the work of Stanage (1986) in regard to empowerment. Stanage contended that empowerment is an enabling phenomenon that helps in liberating the individual. From this perspective, life long learning provided the nominees in this study with a form of transformation and liberation that was not present prior to the experiences they described. In addition to identification of self-actualization as an empowering force, the nominees credited the formal education process, particularly their graduate education with contributing to their empowerment. The factors cited--a sense of control or self-discipline, recognition of their professional abilities and expertise, realization of personal ambitions and their increased sense of power and influence in their professional roles--reflected a sense of liberation and growth.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the propositions and the sub-propositions be verified with the nominees and with other groups of professional nurses who meet the criteria established for this study. Since this study focused on a small number of professional nurses who manifested many of the characteristics of Houle's "learning-oriented" population, it is recommended that a larger population of professional nurses be studied to determine their learning orientation. It is also recommended that the concept of empowerment, as defined in this study, be extended to include the study of a more diverse population of adult learners involved in continuing learning activities to determine if the properties identified for the Category Empowerment are reflected in ways similar to those found among the professional nurses in this study.

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Facilitating Reflective Workplace Learning for Adult Children of Alcoholics

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PURPOSE OF PRESENTATION

The purpose of this presentation is to describe partial findings from a collaborative research project funded by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health at The University of Texas. The study sought to examine strategies for facilitating reflective learning about workplace problems for a group of adult children of alcoholics (ACOAs) (Argyris, Putnam, & Smith, 1985.

THE PROBLEM

There are over 28 million children of alcoholics in the United States, 22 million who have now reached adulthood. In the workplace, these adult children of alcoholics are recently being acknowledged as a group who face special challenges. Awareness that ACOAs experience problems in their jobs is beginning to emerge, particularly among Employee Assistance Program providers. To cite just one study, a preliminary review of 100 randomly selected case records from a variety of Employee Assistance Programs across the nation revealed at least 28 percent of the cases were employed children of alcoholics; the figures rose to 35 percent when other probable indicators of parental alcohol abuse were included (Woodside, 1986). These statistics support a contention that ACOAs are an important workplace population for human resource development professionals to understand and to be able to work with effectively. Although much has been written about how growing up with alcoholism affects different aspects of an individual's life, little specific description of its effect in the workplace has been offered. Approaches to helping individuals deal with this issue have been confined to therapy, theme groups, and leaderless peer support groups. To explore the efficacy of using action science with this special group in the workplace, the study was designed to answer two questions:

1) What is the nature of problematic practice reported by ACOAs?
2) Under what circumstances does action science contribute to reflective learning for ACOAs and under what circumstances might a therapeutic approach be more effective?

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

The research design involved two groups: 1) an "ACOA Reflection Group" which included six participants with Renee Rogers as the interventionist/facilitator and 2) a "Research Reflection Group" with Karen Watkins, Renee Rogers, and Deb Morrow.

The ACOA Reflection Group

The purpose of this group was to explore how individuals interpreted specific problematic workplace experiences and the learning process that was engaged as they critically reflected on these workplace interactions. The group met once a week for sixteen weeks in the conference room of a hospital where one group member was the Director of Nursing. The participants wrote action science cases of an interpersonal interaction in their work. Reflection on these cases and on their own on-line interactions formed the content of the group sessions. These group sessions lasted for approximately two and a half to three hours. Each week the sessions were tape recorded and transcribed. For many meetings, participants read the transcripts of the previous week before meeting together.

The Research Reflection Group

The ACOA group facilitator met numerous times during the sixteen weeks of data collection with Karen Watkins and with a consultant (funded by the grant) who had been trained in action science methodology at Harvard University. The primary focus for this group was on the facilitator's learning about her interventions in the group. This group read the transcripts, or at least parts of the transcripts that the facilitator identified as problematic, and reflected together on the way the ACOA group was progressing. This reflection group served two important functions during the data collection phase. First, it provided what Guba (1981) has called "peer debriefing" where the facilitator could test her interpretations and be exposed to questions and alternative interpretations. Secondly, the facilitator was confronted and encouraged in this group to try interventions with participants that she would have avoided and this led to learning episodes in the ACOA group that were different from what would have happened had she been acting alone. On-going analysis of the transcripts in light of the research objectives formed the basis of these suggested interventions. These tentative research findings became hypotheses to be experimentally tested as the research process unfolded.

PARTICIPANT DESCRIPTION

The ACOA group included two males and four females who worked in varying professions: a public school administrator, an OD practitioner at a utility company, two public health nurse practitioners involved in maternal health care, a director of nursing of a large hospital, and an administrative aide.

The group facilitator invited participants to be involved in this study after several long conversations where she explained the purpose of the research, explored with them what they could gain by particpating, and examined possible barriers that would make participation difficult. Criteria for selection was an informed willingness to commit to a lengthy intervention process, strong involvement with their work, and a background of having grown up with at least one alcoholic parent. All but two participants had also had some therapy or a 12-step group background.

DATA ANALYSIS AND THREATS TO VALIDITY

We attempted to build reflectivity into the research design by proceeding at all stages in a highly collaborative fashion, constantly testing alternative interpretations and seeking to share meaning. The three members of the Research Reflection Group worked together in the initial review of the transcripts while the ACOA group was on-going. During the sixteen week data collection phase, we developed maps (such as those described in action science) depicting individuals' theories of action which the facilitator took back to the ACOA group for confirmation and elaboration.

After the data collection phase, Karen Watkins and Renee Rogers collaborated to analyze the 640 pages of transcript. We developed a chronology of the progression of events in both the ACOA Group and Research Reflection Group which highlights events which were coterminous in each group. Together we developed a "Critical Episodes Chronology of the Facilitator's Practice." To do this, we identified and described each time the facilitator intervened in the group discourse. We defined an intervention as any attempt to influence or change the course of the discussion. The chronology of the progression of the project in both groups and the "Critical Episodes Chronology of the Facilitator's Practice" serve as an audit trail (Guba, 1981) which can be used by an external auditor to examine the researchers' analytical processes.

FINDINGS ABOUT FACILITATING REFLECTIVE WORKPLACE LEARNING WITH ACOAS

An important story which emerged in this research process concerned the learning of the interventionist as she explored dilemmas which emerged in attempting to integrate in her practice an understanding of the difference between the two different intervention modalities of action science and therapy. Argyris (1968) differentiates between therapeutic interventions (which he describes as inferential, interpretive, and evaluative) and action science interventions which are minimally interpretive and evaluative. Both the interventionist and group participants had previous experience in ACOA therapy groups where they were accustomed to making interpretive, high level inference interventions based on an understanding of ACOA family roles or common ACOA characteristics. In learning to do action science, both the interventionist and the participants began to move away from interventions based on family of origin explanations and to experiment with alternative ways of understanding and acting in here-and-now practice.

The process of understanding the differences between these two intervention modalities led to an examination of the incidental interaction effects of the impact of action science interventions on individuals who are at different stages in reconciling specific ACOA issues. These effects are depicted below:

The Interaction of Action Science Strategies and ACOA Issues

Action Science Strategies	ACOA Issues
Using directly observable data	breaks down denial and induces feelings of shame.
Confronting "fancy footwork"	confronts behavior learned in family for maintaining denial.
Using feelings as data for learning	requires high level surfacing of feelings which ACOAs have

	learned to control or suppress.
Using mistakes as learning	confronts all-or-none, right/wrong functioning characteristic of many ACOAs.
Redesigning problematic behavior	asks person to move beyond habituated role-bound behavior which person has developed to survive.
Reframing theories-in-use	appears to require a "cure" of childhood view of the world which discounts feelings rooted in childhood perspective.
Advocating one's view while inquiring into another's view	confronts common ACOA family of origin behaviors of withdrawing, hiding, or saying nothing.

An important aspect of reflective learning processes was illustrated in the "moments of surrender" which occurred in the group. This led us to compare three transformational learning theories (Argyris, et al., 1985; Boyd and Fales, 1983; Gravitz and Bowden, 1985) which identify the centrality of a kind of surrendering or yielding as a component of transformational learning.

The power of surrender in facilitating transformative learning processes was illustrated by the dramatic change in the group dynamic which occurred when the interventionist yielded to a critical examination of her own action rather than just advocating the norms of critical reflectivity. In Meeting 8, the interventionist shifted the locus of critique onto the interventionist side of the dialogue. While her primary intention in doing this was to depict the theory-in-use which underlay her own and others' therapeutically oriented interventions, shifting the locus of critique onto the interventionist side of the dialogue enacted in practice the norm of "learning from mistakes." After this session, the group began to work together in a more functional way, experimenting and playing with exercises to facilitate reframing and redesigning their action. Thus, this research supports the contention that those who facilitate reflective learning processes need to be able to model critical self-reflection.

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Workplace Learning and Development Perspectives of Accounting and Human Resource Professionals

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Abstract

This study sought to examine features of workplace learning orientations, workplace social perspective, job complexity, and job satisfaction, and compare them in two occupational groups, human resource development practitioners and accountants. It was speculated that differences in the nature of accountants (or their jobs) compared to human resource professionals might be reflected in their social perspectives of the workplace, and in their approach to formal, informal, and experiential learning in the workplace. Differences were found in job complexity and perspective, with implications for learning orientations and professional development.

Perspective

The intellectual flexibility development of adults is reflected in characteristics of their jobs, such as task complexity, communication requirements, discretion in decision making, and the scope of impact of actions. Notwithstanding the causality of the relationship between the job a person has and the intellectual characteristics demonstrated, much research indicates that people in similar occupations tend to share certain personality characteristics. This research investigated whether differences in occupations are associated with differences in approaches to workplace learning and development.

According to Basseches (1984), jobs can be classified in a developmental scheme characterized by the social perspective-taking (SPT) of the typical individual found in the particular job. A five stage theory was posited that describes job characteristics and the social perspective taken by an individual typifying the developmental level at that stage (Table 1).

Basic to Basseches' claim is the notion that people in more complex jobs tend to have broader social perspectives and that jobs demanding obedience to others and conformity to social norms offer less opportunity for individual

SPT Stage	Key Job Feature	Perspective
1	Obedience	Self only
2	Cooperation	Self and other individuals
3	Conformity	Individuals and groups
4	Judgement	Groups and systems
5	Transformation	Existing and ideal systems

Table 1. Basseches' Social perspective-taking framework

development than jobs with autonomous tasks such as analysis and comparison. He also hypothesized that, as social relationships are built into the structure of jobs, for work to provide the opportunity for employee development, organizations must offer employees an environment where they can continue to face the challenge of new tasks and to enter into wider circles of social relationships. Workers who can conceptualize their social environment and take into account the perspectives of other individuals, groups, and systems can deal more effectively with a broader range of events including job complexity.

The work of Kohn and his associate, Schooler (1983), provides support that a relationship exists between structural characteristics of jobs and intellectual development. Increased intellectual flexibility can encourage greater substantive job complexity and greater job complexity can create the potential for individual intellectual development.

This research and these claims led the researchers in this study to look at two groups--accounting and human resource professionals, who because of their stereotyped differences, might reasonably be expected to reflect at least somewhat different orientations and predispositions toward the workplace. Relationships were explored between these two predetermined groups for job satisfaction, substantive job complexity, learning implications--formal and informal, and social workplace perspective.

Methods

Data for the study was collected from persons in the two predefined occupational groups through two professional organizations representing professional membership societies and associations in the non-profit sector. A survey instrument was distributed to 30 accounting and 30 human resource personnel; in the accounting group 13 were returned, and in the human resource group, 17. The responses were returned anonymously through the mail.

Participants made self assessments of job satisfaction, job complexity, workplace learning preferences, and social perspectives toward the workplace and were also asked to respond to a dialogue, typical of a workplace interaction, eliciting answers reflective of social perspectives toward the workplace and assumptions about the outcome of the interaction.

Job satisfaction was measured by participants' responses to the short form of the Job Diagnostic Survey by Hackman and Oldham (1974). The short form, which is made up of three of the five items composing the "general satisfaction" scale on the long form, provides an overall measure of the degree to which a respondent was satisfied with his or her job. The reliability of the short form closely parallels that of the long form.

Job complexity for the two occupational groups was measured by evaluating factors representing job content and job context. Focusing on skill levels and abilities required to evaluate substantive job complexity, self evaluations were elicited through questions relating to task complexity, communications required with others, effect of work habits on others, and the impact of errors on others and the organization. The continuum of possibilities ranged from job responsibilities and interactions which were well defined and relatively easily mastered to those which were open ended and potentially containing challenges for employee workplace development. These categories were typical of job characteristics used by organizations to evaluate positions in a formal factor job evaluation process.

Respondents evaluated the task complexity category of substantive job complexity required by their jobs by indicating the proportion of time they spent on tasks ranging from those which were structurally other-directed, repetitive, routine functions to those which were self-directed, widely diversified responsibilities.

Communications with others assessed both the scope and the depth of the interactions required with others, ranging from limited interactions with employees worked with and the immediate supervisor to highly complex interactions with both internal and external contacts of major importance to the organization.

Employee work habits and the impact of errors on others and the organization were evaluated according to their effect and impact upon both employees inside the organization and others inside and outside the organization.

The responses to each of the above job complexity factors were weighted according to complexity and summed to arrive at a measure reflecting the overall substantive job complexity for each respondent.

In order to assess how respondents valued learning and their predisposition toward learning modes, respondents were also asked to rate their perception of the importance of various learning methods and activities in the workplace. Categories of learning methods which included both informal and formal learning included interpersonal interactions, training and learning methods, availability of information in the workplace and learning interests. The ratings of factors for each category were summed to derive a measure of each category.

Measures of social perspective were derived from two sources on the questionnaire. An item asking the respondent to indicate their belief about what should be most important for an employee included choices relating to personal effectiveness as well as organizational effectiveness was used to dichotomize responses as having an individual or organizational perspective.

Another measure of perspective was made from responses elicited from an item asking respondents to imagine being involved in a particular conversation in the workplace. They were asked to write a response to the imagined other person as well as record their unexpressed feelings and thoughts might be. The format was a modification of the two-column case dialogue method of Argyris (1982) who asks persons to create their own dialogue for analysis. Providing a common stimulus for a group of respondents allows comparisons to be made within and between groups (Wiswell, 1988). The actual stimulus in the "generic" dialogue was as follows:

> Other: I heard that our new Executive Director has been selected. I don't know exactly what this change will mean for employees and for our organization. We don't have all the information yet, but it may mean new job responsibilities, reporting structures and many decisions to be made.
>
> You:

Responses to the dialogue were coded according to the respondent's social workplace perspective, being individual or organizational. The potential interaction depicted in the written response was speculated to reflect a range of perspectives from the limited perspective of self to a broader perspective taking into consideration others and the group or organization as a whole.

Results

Comparisons of Accountants and Human Resource Personnel

The 20 self-reported measures of job complexity were weighted and totalled, having a possible rang from 5 to 20. The human resource personnel reported a greater level of complexity in their work, with a mean of 12.0, compared to a mean of 9.8 for the accountants ($p < .05$).

Two measures of workplace development perspective were made, one by dichotomizing responses to an item asking what should be most important to an employee. The other was made by independent ratings of the dialogue responses into one of two categories, one reflecting personal concern or interest, the other reflecting organizational concern or interest. Both of these measures were significantly greater for the accountant group compared to the human resource group ($p<.05$).

There were no differences between groups for the measure of job satisfaction or for the composite importance rating given for informal learning or formal learning (Table 2).

t Tests Between Groups

	Accountants	HR	p
Perspective (From Dialogue)	1.750	1.357	.047
Perspective (From Importance Item)	1.769	1.353	.023
Job Complexity	9.818	12.056	.017
Job Satisfaction	13.615	13.706	.860
Informal Learning Rating	6.462	6.477	.622
Formal Learning Rating	8.167	7.118	.384

Table 2: Comparisons of accountants and HR personnel

The overall correlation of job satisfaction with task complexity was significantly positive (rho = .449, $p<.02$).

Conclusions and Implications

This exploratory study sought to examine some ways in which learning and development relating to social perspective could be measured and examined in the context of the workplace by comparing two groups of professionals that might be expected to exhibit some differences.

Tentative conclusions suggest that although the nature of human resource development activity in organizations has as an objective the impact upon others throughout the organization, some of these professionals may not have the corresponding broad social perspective. This is reasonable to expect due to the nature of the human resource development profession (in contrast with accountancy) as the focus of the job is prototypically upon the learning and development of individual employees and the ultimate, and perhaps extensive, impact upon the organization and larger social systems may not be acknowledged. There is a tension between the complexity inherent in a human resource development position that would suggest a broader social perspective and the prevailing philosophical orientation of the field that individual development is of foremost importance. This potential double bind could result in unintended negative consequences for professional and organizational effectiveness.

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"Straight to the Heart of the Union:" Workers' Education in the United Packinghouse Workers of America, 1951-1953

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Abstract

This thematic history demonstrates the importance of the UPWA-CIO's education program under the direction of Myles Horton between 1951-1953, during a period of transition for the American labor movement, labor education and adult education.

Introduction

Between September 1951 and March 1953, Myles Horton, founder and director of Highlander Folk School, served as education director of the UPWA-CIO in an effort to build an education program which nurtured worker participation in union decision-making. He introduced his educational philosophy to the union by declaring that "education is not something apart from the union program as a whole. An education program is either window dressing or it goes straight to the heart of the union."(The Packinghouse Worker, 1951) Horton promoted education programs based on the "percolator system," where ideas "come from the workers up, and not as in the drip system, from the top down."(Horton, 1951a)

As education director, Horton envisioned building a grassroots, democratically-based education program within the steward system of the UPWA, but resigned after only eighteen months. Frustrated by internal politics of the union's leadership, Horton (1953) wrote to UPWA president Ralph Helstein,

> I realize that policies must be pushed from the top. Nevertheless, I am concerned with the degree to which the [education] coordinators are thought of entierely [sic] as part and parcel of a power structure, which loses its ability to get acceptance by virtue of power alone, when the rank and file is reached.

Methodology

This thematic history developed from a systematic analysis of memos, reports, minutes, news articles, and educational material found in Highlander's and UPWA's official repositories. Although the information and chronology of events are solidly grounded in these records, many questions and controversies emerged during the research as each institution used different criteria in deciding what to save or discard. This research also incorporated interviews found in the UPWA Oral History Project, recent interviews with now deceased UPWA president Ralph Helstein, and personally conducted interviews with Myles Horton and several UPWA employees who were intimately involved with the education program. These oral histories--often jaded or embellished after a thirty-five year romantic interlude--provided an opportunity to look beyond the institutional history of the UPWA and Highlander by offering nuances mere documents could not provide.

Yet this interpretation has not been finalized as I await the release of the FBI files on the UPWA and the completion of the Iowa Labor History Project by the Iowa Federation of Labor. There is also much needed research to develop an understanding of the dynamics between labor and adult education--a relationship which seems forgotten in contemporary adult education.

Historical Importance

The events examined in this study gain significant meaning when viewed in the context of the Cold War era of the early 1950's. They provide insight into the bureaucratization of labor and the dialectical pressure to animate workers while controlling them. As labor's radical left was marginalized, a new generation of professional educators ascended to power with the institutionalization of adult and labor education. Knowles (1962) argued that this institutionalization resulted in greater stability allowing unions to serve rather than fight. This study argues that this process resulted in a more apathetic, alienated workforce.

Following WW II, fear of the Communist Party, coupled with the bureaucratic needs of government and unions to control workers, resulted in a series of anti-labor legislation--most notably the Taft-Hartley Act. The CIO, in its battle to survive, became more conservative, purging itself of Communist-dominated unions such as the United Electrical Workers, while denying its militant beginnings under John L. Lewis. Both the UPWA and Highlander were targets of this conservative onslaught as they resisted signing the anti-communist affidavit of the Taft-Hartley Act.

Robert Schaefer (1951) argued in his study of the garment workers that labor education symbolized the ideological death of the labor movement which had become unable to arouse workers' passion through struggle with a vision of a more just, socialist society. It appears that the UPWA experienced the same problems as the garment workers, only the death came five to ten years later. Maurice Isserman (1987) described the 1950's as the period when the old left within labor died and when the new left was born in the civil rights movement and the peace and justice movement. Both Highlander and UPWA played key roles in this transition. Unfortunately, the UPWA failed during this period to nurture worker-activism which characterized its birth in the 1940's.

Historical Paradigm

Richard Dwyer (1977) best captures the essence of how education of workers has evolved. He divides labor history into three chronological periods: "workers' education" between 1900's and

1940's; "labor education" during the 1930's through the 1960's; and "labor studies" beginning in the 1960's and continuing today. Workers' education emphasized leadership development directed toward political and social change. Sites of workers' education included independent schools such as the Rand School, Brookwood, and Highlander. Labor education, conducted "in house" by union-paid staff, also promoted leadership development, but often did so void of any philosophy which promoted social and political transformation. It tended to be more utilitarian than liberal, emphasizing such topics as union development, contract negotiations, and public speaking. Today, labor studies reflects the complete alienation of workers from their education and union as higher education institutions have incorporated workers' education within their business structure.

If Highlander during the 1930's and 1940's is an example of workers' education, and the UPWA's education program is an example of labor education, then Highlander's work with the UPWA represents a rare attempt to implement social change education into the corporate structure of a union. Clearly the evolution of education in the UPWA fits Dwyer's scheme.

A Natural Marriage

The relationship between Highlander, via Horton, and the UPWA was unique among education programs of the day. Rolland Paulston (1980), a labor education historian, recognized the contribution of Highlander following World War II, as the only school which "continued to provide democratic, social-change-oriented nonformal education programs within the American labor movement." Unfortunately, Paulston observed, it also "provoked a highly conservative backlash."

The UPWA survived through its ability to nurture democratic participation and to resist both internal bureaucratization and external purges of its communist members in the late 1940's and early 1950's. After the 1948 strike which nearly destroyed the UPWA, the union's leadership began developing a formal education program aimed at strengthening local leadership. Steward Todd Tate (1985) of Chicago's Local 347 described the program as an attempt "to educate the membership and involve them in activities that were designed to bring about a greater level of conciousness." UPWA's leadership saw the steward system as the natural vehicle to address the problem of declining worker participation.

The UPWA and Highlander shared a commitment to building a democratic labor movement and a willingness to pursue policies independent of the CIO leadership.

Horton as Education Director

Horton first developed a relationship with the UPWA in the 1940's. UPWA's first education director, Sven Godfredsen, helped organize the "Chicago Committee" which sponsored Horton on a fund raising tour in 1948. The next education director Louis Krainock had been on Highlander's staff in the late 1940's. Although neither had as fully developed an education program as did Horton, they plowed UPWA's political soil necessary for Horton's program.

By 1951, Highlander began placing more resources in civil rights and citizenship education because of labor's growing conservatism and intolerance. Even though Highlander's executive council was apprehensive about making a commitment to the UPWA, Horton saw it as an opportunity to work with a progressive union, bring some needed funds to Highlander, and test educational and leadership methods outside the South. (Glen, 1988)

UPWA paid Highlander to provide an educational program and a director. This unconventional arrangement soon proved to be troublesome as UPWA's accounting department found it difficult to understand, and hence to justify Horton's expenses and operating procedure. Opponents of Horton in UPWA's leadership charged that the education program was too expensive without visible results.

Yet, in spite of these barriers, "the success of this educational program," wrote Horton, "rests or falls with the field staff. They will be judged not by the impressions their activities give at the time or by their dramatic qualities, but by their effectiveness."(1951b) Horton's five staff members were chosen based on their ability to be independent, creative, and trustworthy. Given the small size of his staff, and the overall size of the union (over 100,000 workers) Horton's program focused on training people to do things for themselves.

New Leadership

In order to improve workers' involvement in the union, the education staff used a problem-centered pedagogy. Horton argued that the education staff's first job was to "find out what is already being done. Some things not recognized as education do educate the membership, while some so-called education programs are not worth the paper they are on." (1951c)

Horton believed that leadership material existed everywhere, and finding it was the job of his staff. The search occurred in two phases. First, the field staff developed a steward-training program to familiarize themselves with the issues and problems of the different locals. Through this program, the field staff identified and trained stewards to be education instructors, who later assumed control of their local's education program. This process promoted an education program with greater local control. The content of the education program differed with the style and interests of each staff member and instructor. They received minimal direction from the international's office. Along with grievance procedures and contract negotiations, programs on anti-discrimination, women's rights, and local and national political campaigns were incorporated into the training. Horton's education program quickly experienced success.

This success met opposition from competing elements within the union's leadership. Horton wrote President Helstein, "In analysising [sic] the situation it is evident that opposition arose only after new leadership started developing." (1952) Not everyone shared Horton's vision of new leadership. Vice President A. T. Stephens (1952) wrote in a letter to Horton:

> To put it as simply as possible, the expectations I held for the educational program as it now exists have failed to materialize. I have been watching the results as reflected in the reports from our 40 member regular staff assigned throughout the U.S., and I find less and less activity on the part of these men in connection with pushing the programs and policies of our union.

New leadership meant a new sense of independence within locals and among workers. Out of this new independence came new ideas, not always in line with that of certain leaders.

As the Workers Saw Changes

In retrospect, retired workers recognized the potential impact of Horton's education program. One district director recalled, "I thought when we got Myles we were going in the right direction...after Horton left, the program dwindled down till where it wasn't worth much." (1985, Nielson) A Waterloo, Iowa steward identified the mid-fifties as the point where the union began to lose the support of the workers.(Lamb, 1986) One field representative cited union prosperity in the mid-1950's as a cause for declining worker participation. (Nolan, 1986) Another steward noted that worker participation in the union declined so sharply in the 1950's that his local quit having Labor Day picnics. (Cossano, 1986) The problem of worker apathy and alienation following the 1948 strike no longer concerned the union's leadership by the mid-fifties as the union had become a more stable business entity in the eyes of both the government and the packers

Conclusions

The decline of the UPWA in the late 1950's and early 1960's cannot be merely attributed to declining worker participation. New technology in meat packing and growing conservatism and anti-laborism throughout the country also weakened the union. But historically the ability to mobilize its workers is a union's greatest weapon. The education program envisioned and partially implemented by Horton nurtured the participation of workers by placing value on their ideas. A more centralized education approach, farther from the daily concerns of the workers, with national conventions and programs followed Horton's dismantled program.

Ironically President Helstein (1981) believed Horton succeeded in creating an educational program that attempted to make the rank and file "more effective, more meaningful union people and citizens." The question remains, why was this program dismantled if it was viewed as being successful?

Finally, Horton (1952) clearly defined the role of education in a report to President Helstein. "All educational activities are carried on for the purpose of getting people to do things for themselves." Less than a year after writing this report, Horton came to the dissapointing realization that Highlander's approach to education would not work within the confines of a union, even one as progressive as the UPWA.

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SELF-DIRECTED CAREER DEVELOPMENT HAS PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL POTENTIAL

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Abstract: This qualitative case study examined participants' experiences in a self-directed career development program. Data were collected through interviews, participant observation, and document materials. A cross-case analysis of the interviews revealed that both professional and personal lives were affected, and that there is an interrelationship between professional and personal development.

Introduction

The changing structure of the American workforce and work environments has forced individuals to take an active and responsible role in the advancement and development of their own careers (Hall, 1986). Factors such as fluctuating world markets, technological shifts, corporate takeovers, increased numbers of women and minorities in the workforce, better educated employees, and the aging of the baby boom generation into midcareer have contributed to the changing nature of careers within the American workforce. Organizations can no longer guarantee lifetime employment nor can individuals anticipate remaining in one position for many years.

Too, individuals are citing the need to balance their professional lives with their personal lives (Lippitt, 1980). New work values are emerging as employees look for ways to maintain stability for themselves: "the drive to reach the top has been replaced by the need to keep one's life on a relatively even keel" (Yankelovich & Lefkowitz, 1982, p. 5). Individuals are taking time to explore what is important to them, and are integrating their needs with the needs of their organization.

Career development and organizational development literature reflect this contextualist tone, expressing a need for 'career adaptability' rather than 'career maturity' (Super & Knasel, 1981). The expansion and proliferation of training and development programs within business and industry indicate a heightened awareness within organizations to develop programs that meet both individual and organizational needs. Faculty development seminars, in-service training, and continuing professional education courses are examples of programs developed outside of business and industry for academicians, educators, lawyers, doctors, accountants, and other professionals. With this increased number of programs designed for career development purposes, there is a need to look at the individual within the career context (Brooks, 1984; Stumpf, 1984; Schein, 1986). As Super has written, "the interactions of internal and external pressures have only begun to be studied, and yet they should be rich in implications for education, guidance, counseling, therapy, and continuing education" (1984, p. 41).

Statement of Problem and Purpose

The need to study individual development within career development programs has been demonstrated by a number of researchers. When looking at individual development concerns within such programs, these researchers have noted some of the following: an increased self-responsibility for own career, an increased critical self-awareness, and an increased satisfaction in working towards career goals (Brownlee, 1983; Gillespie, 1983; Vander Wyde, 1984; McGuire, 1985; Cox, 1986). These studies have also found that both the individual and the organization benefit from career development programs.

Hall and Lerner (1980) discuss the need to research career interventions as a way of facilitating individual development. They blame this lack of research on both practitioners and academics: "the former group does not bother doing research on its organizational interventions, whereas the latter has shown little interest in translating its research into practical program recommendations" (p. 432). Hall and Lerner's article, together with the above named studies, reinforces the importance of attending to the individual developmental needs of participants within career development programs. The purpose of this study was to examine participants' experiences in a self-directed career development program.

Description of Program and Data

The Kellogg Career Enhancement Award Program, sponsored by the University of Georgia Cooperative Extension Service and the Fort Valley State College Cooperative Extension Program, was developed "to provide mid-career professional 'educators' with new experiences that will address creativity and stimulation as well as promote professional and personal development" (file memo, p. 2). Residents of Georgia who educate or provide services to adults in a nonformal, nondegree setting could apply for up to $5000 to be used within a 12-month period, January 1 through December 31st, on professional and personal activities of their own choosing. Participants were required to attend an orientation seminar and two-three day seminars, and received up to 21 days paid leave to conduct their chosen activities. This program was modelled after the National Kellogg Fellowship Program and was designed to operate for four years: 1986, 1987, 1988, and 1989.

The participants in the 1987 program were selected as the focus of this study. This group was selected because of its small size (12 participants), and because of the availability of the researcher to attend each of the 1987 seminars. The twelve individuals who participated in the 1987 program were all community adult educators from around the state of Georgia. Their ages ranged from 30 to 60. There were eight women and four men, all white. Each had completed their year of individual activities and participated in the group seminars. All had agreed, as stipulated by the Award Program, to participate in this study as part of the evaluation component of the program.

Methodology

Because this study sought to explore and discover the participants' experiences within a particular career development program, the qualitative paradigm and more specifically, the case study (Merriam, 1988), was selected as the methodology for this research study. Data were gathered in three ways: (1) from in-depth interviews, (2) from participant observation at planned group seminars, and (3) from document materials.

Participants were interviewed at the completion of their year in the program. Interviews were conducted in the participants' own offices, tape recorded, and then transcribed verbatim as soon after the interview as possible. Open-ended questions were first asked to allow participants to explore their unique experiences within the program. A semi-structured interview guide was then used that focused on the basic question of this study, "How did the participants experience this program?" The areas of inquiry that were explored with each participant included: (a) the components of the program (e.g., application process and group seminars) that might have created similar and dissimilar experiences among participants; (b) the personal factors (e.g., occupation, age, type of activities selected) that might have created different experiences among participants; and (c) the effect that the program might have had on participants' home, work, and community environments. At the conclusion of each interview, participants were asked to describe their experiences in the form of a metaphor. Apps (1985) writes that "metaphors are a powerful way of communicating meaning" (p. 108). With metaphors, participants were able to reflect and express their experiences in ways that assisted both themselves and the interviewer to understand better the meaning of their year.

In addition, the researcher attended group seminars and interacted with the participants as a participant observer. Considered one of the "group," the researcher participated in all activities and freely conversed and mingled with the participants. Observations were made throughout each seminar and notes were jotted down during quiet times, at the end of each session, and at the end of each day. These notes included observations about the group's interactions and dynamics, comments by participants, the seminar's program, and overall reflections. Document materials for this study included the actual Program proposal, minutes of staff and committee meetings, Kellogg Foundation literature, and individual files on each participant. The reading of these materials helped the researcher to gain a broader perspective of the program and the individual participants.

Together the data collected from the interviews, participant observation, and document materials assisted the researcher in composing a mini-case study of each individual participant. These cases were accounts of each person, giving a description of their professional and personal lives as well as a description of their chosen activities. The first two interviews were then examined closely for statements that spoke to the researcher's study. Similarities in responses between the two interviewees were highlighted and assimilated into a beginning framework for categorization. As the researcher proceeded to analyze each subsequent transcript against the previous ones, these categories were strengthened. A list of criteria for highlighting important statements, based on a pilot study, was used. The constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) of the interview data resulted in two distinct categories, each with three descriptive properties.

Findings and Conclusions

Two major categories resulted from the interviews of these twelve participants, and three separate properties described each of the two categories. The first major category, "The Expanded Self," addressed the personal dimension of the participants' experiences in this program. Their attendance at the group seminars and involvement with their own individual activities created for them an expansion of their own selves. For example, one participant expressed that his biggest satisfaction from this award program was that of "broadened perspectives, being able to embrace and even endure different opinions." The first property, "Openness to New Ways of Thinking," described how participants became expanded in their thinking about themselves and their world. The second property, "Openness to Risk Taking," showed how many of the participants found themselves open to new risks and adventures as a result of their participation in this program. The third property, "Openness to a Newer Sense of Personal Competence," described how the participants experienced their personal lives during this program. They shared with the researcher their family and job concerns against the backdrop of this program.

The second major category that emerged from the interviews was named "The Reflective Practitioner," after Schon's (1983) book of the same name. This category addressed the professional dimension of the participants' experiences. An element of surprise and subsequent reflection upon their professional lives was experienced by the participants in this program, again due to their involvement in the group seminars and their individual activities. One participant shared that he now "has a more expanded vision, I can look at things that I normally would not include as part of my repertoire." The first property, "Recognition of Self as an Adult Educator," described how some of the participants never thought of themselves as adult educators until they participated in this program. The second property, called "Reaffirmation of Self as an Adult Educator," described the ways in which the participants gained a deeper professional sense of themselves as adult educators, as a result of their participation in this program. Many gained newer, richer insights about themselves which they could incorporate into their professional selves. The third property, "Expansion of Professional Repertoire" addressed the new knowledge gained by the participants as a result of being in this program. Many spoke of a new interdisciplinary outlook that they could bring to their jobs, which they did not have before.

Two general conclusions were made from the findings of this study. The participants' experiences in this program designed to address professional and personal needs showed that (a) the program did indeed affect the participants' professional and personal lives, and (b) there is an interrelationship between professional and personal development. These conclusions are most clearly demonstrated by the two categories which emerged from the data. This program gave participants the opportunity to select activities that met their current professional and personal needs. In so doing, the program allowed for the whole of the person to be affected. The participants in this program reported some sense of integration of self, of connecting the two dimensions of their lives in this program. One woman's metaphor illustrated this well: she described her year as "a babbling brook on the move, but a peaceful move. I was going somewhere, I was exhilarated and excited. Little stones were sticking up and you had to accommodate, but there was serenity and peacefulness, interacting with the professional side of it. You were leaving somewhere, going somewhere, but slowly enough to note what's happening to you. Not like shooting rapids, it was a positive self."

These conclusions support both the call in the literature for more career development programming designed to address the contextual needs of employees, and the call for a balance between an individual's professional and personal dimensions. This study responds well to the need for more research on individual development within career development interventions.

Three features of this program may have accounted for the findings and conclusions of this study. First, the purpose of this program was to address professional and personal concerns. Second, the structure of the program allowed for both professional and personal development. Third, the program contained good adult education principles. The program succeeded because it met its purposes and responded to the needs of a particular population. Participants were given opportunities through the structure of time, money, and group seminars, to develop and implement their own learning activities, based on their professional and personal needs. Many reported a sense of deep satisfaction and knowing that they had been changed, for the better, as a result of their experiences in this program. Many also reported a greater sense of integration and wholeness, a sense of balance between their professional and personal lives.

Implications and Recommendations

One of the most important contributions the findings in this study can give to the literature, and particularly to theory, is the interrelationship between professional and personal development. These findings support Super and Knasel's (1981) conjecture about "career adaptability," and strongly affirm the theoretical adult learning concepts of self-directed learning, experiential learning, and perspective transformation. Career development programs can be designed to address the needs of the whole person, and more programs like this one need to be developed. The field of adult education, through its knowledge base of adult learning, development, and program methods, can be used to meet the career development needs of adults in many disciplines, particularly those outside of business and industry. Adult educators may be able to assist foundations, universities, and non-profit organizations to create and promote similar programs such as the one in this study.

The use of additional research designs for the study of this program may add to a more comprehensive understanding of these participants' experiences. Similar programs may be developed and then researched to see if this kind of program is suitable for other professional groups, age, or developmental stage populations. This program was modelled after the National Kellogg Fellowship Program, and it would be interesting to compare the experiences of participants in the National Program with those of this program. If the findings of these two programs were similar, that may encourage the development of similar programs around the country as an acknowledged way of meeting adult career development needs. Studies based on these and other recommendations are likely to contribute further to the understanding of adult career development theory, and to ways in which adult career development needs may be met through structured yet innovative programming.

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Low-Readers' Perceptions of Education: Where Does It Really Lead?

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Abstract

This paper reports partial results of a qualitative study of connections made by low-literates between literacy education and attainment of aspirations. Findings indicated that decisions both toward and away from literacy education were influenced by contentment with work, primary relationships and self; by the ability to envision one's future, clarify goals, and to understand the nature of barriers to learning; and by social networks. Further analysis will be conducted to specify relationships and to arrive at recommendations for literacy researchers and practitioners.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to explore the connections made by low-literates between goals and further literacy education in order to help adult educators who want to respond to the particular situations of their learners. An assumption underlying basic adult education programs has been that people with significant problems in communicating through reading and writing will view further literacy education as a means of improving skills and achieving certain goals (Mezirow, 1975; Smith, 1989). While literacy is commonly presented as the way to get a job and develop personally, there is increasing evidence that an improvement of reading and writing skills alone is not an automatic path to employment (Rosow & Zager, 1988). Evidence that a large proportion of the target population eligible for basic literacy programs do not actually enroll (Kozol, 1985) suggests that there are low literate individuals who either have aspirations that cannot be met through improving literacy skills or who reject further literacy education as a means of goal attainment.

Methodology

A series of interviews were conducted with 27 study participants, both Native American and White, on a reservation in Montana. Educators and others knowledgeable about the community suggested potential "low-literate" respondents--individuals with reading and writing problems that restricted communication, who needed help on a regular basis with literacy tasks. Subsequent interviews with respondents were designed to validate informants' initial impressions on literacy abilities and, as a result, their suitability for study participation. Interview questions focused on major aspirations, relating to personal development, jobs, or literacy; experience with learning, both in school and out, as children and adults; and the social networks around literacy.

In interviewing people, it became clear that change around goal achievement was ongoing: Rarely did people state "I want to do this, and here is my plan for getting what I want". More often respondents spoke of changes to be made in the future, changes made in the past, or of being in the midst of change. They spoke also of their perceptions of education as children and their experiences as adults. The researcher's role was to create a climate in which respondents could connect talk on goals and changes with talk on learning to read and write. Discovery of the range and nature of these connections was a key research objective.

Respondents' views on the phenomena under study were analyzed through grounded theory. Constant comparative analysis of the emerging concepts led to construction of a continuum of connections between literacy education and goal attainment.

Assumptions

One of the assumptions at the onset of research was that the extent to which each low-literate individual *valued* literacy would depend upon a unique pattern of goals, work, self-concept and social context. The researcher wanted to avoid bias toward positive connections between literacy and aspirations as much as possible. A second assumption was that findings would convey the complexity of individual connections in a particular community, in keeping with the philosophy of naturalistic inquiry, rather than a listing of variables meant to predict connections across other similar populations of low-literates.

Findings

Through the constant comparative method, similarities emerged in the way that individual low-literates made connections between literacy education as a means of achieving aspirations. It seemed logical to place the groupings that emerged along a continuum. The low end of the continuum was actually a rejection of any connection, while the high end represented a tight connection between the two phenomena. These connections centered on work, educational and personal development goals, and social relationships. The purpose of describing different groups along the continuum was to arrive at a better sense of the circumstances under which literacy was valued as a means toward an end, and when it was not.

Following is a description of the four rough groupings that emerged along the continuum. The characteristics presented for each group are not necessarily possessed by every respondent in that group--some possessed only one or two. Also, the groups are not static. An individual who fit one group at the time of the interviews could fit into another group if certain of the characteristics changed. Examples from some of the 27 cases are used to illustrate each group.

Group 1: Connection Rejected

All respondents in this group reported goals that were not dependent upon literacy and shared strong feelings about how useless education was to the fulfilling of their aspirations. Some were content in their current work, others talked of jobs they would prefer to be doing, but literacy was not necessary either as an entry requirement or for job performance. Spouses and other relatives either assisted in literacy tasks or performed them for respondents.

The bases of rejection of a literacy-goal connection varied. John, 39, had worked primarily in seasonal lumber industries and Native American crafts for most of his life. His goal was to "be like everybody else...not have to worry about next month," which meant owning a store for campers. At one point he enrolled in a literacy tutor program, because he wanted to learn to read. Although he liked his tutor and the approach, he quit. Why? "I...lost...interest. I don't see an end for it, I don't see a job at the end, I don't see a money value. I guess I'm blind to it, I don't see the value of readin' and writin'." He also talked of the tribal elders he emulated as a child, many of whom were illiterate. Like the others who expressly rejected any connection between literacy and goals, John received considerable help with reading and writing tasks from his wife. "Without her, I don't know what I would do...survive, somehow, but it would be a lot tougher." He felt that illiterates shouldn't have to suffer just because they had something "wrong" with them; "why put pressure on them, they're still people, they gotta make it somehow."

Marty, 26, said he had done everything he'd wanted to do so far. He was proud to be managing a camp ground and gave numerous examples of friends who had more education than he but "still didn't have jobs," or of truck drivers with experience and little formal education being hired over those with vocational school degrees. He spoke of school almost in conspiratorial terms, where high school teachers tell their students "if you have a diploma you can get work easier (than)...a drop out...school's they just tell you it's easier to get work if you have a diploma to keep you in school."

Jake, 25, spoke disparagingly of his job as a nursing home orderly. As soon as he decided to "get serious", he planned to leave this job and go into the family business. Videotaping wrestling matches was a way to make a lot of money, and required few literacy skills that he couldn't handle. During the time of the two interviews, Jake was on parole for drug charges and at one point went into a drug treatment program. These experiences affected his view of what he termed his "seriousness", and it's possible that either a change in career goals or withdrawal of the help he received from his mother on literacy would produce a closer connection between education and goals.

Group 2: Weak Connection

For some in this group, education was talked about but was not connected specifically to work goals. Goals were often diffuse, and for some, there was nothing they either "preferred to be doing" or "planned to do in the future." Some respondents reported spouses' help with literacy tasks.

Two somewhat different kinds of people comprised the "weak connectors." The first group were all women in their 30's with children at home. They differed greatly in their approach to life, two exhibiting fairly "local" behaviors, in Fingeret's (1983) terms, and two with very "cosmopolitan" approaches. All had multiple goals, some dependent upon literacy (nurse, paramedic, interior decorator, get driver's license), and others not (trail guide, learn about alcoholism, learn how to knit). Most of their job-related aspirations were on hold, until children left home.

For three, learning to read and write brought up strong feelings of anger and fear: Dora, 35, told of overhearing several conversations between teachers about how "dumb" some of their community college students were. This was enough to bring back unpleasant memories of school as a child. Callie, 31, had tried several different training programs before the birth of her first child. Both times she had dropped out, once at the application stage, because of what she termed "fear of failure." Lavonne, 35, started a tutorial program, but quit when the teacher got annoyed at her mistakes, stating "I can get that kind of irritation at home." The fourth woman in this category said her reading "problems" were mostly due to dependency upon her husband--this came out during the second interview, after she had undergone counseling for depression.

The second group of "weak connectors" were three men; a logger, spray painter, and custodian; and one retired woman of 60. The 25 year old logger enjoyed his work, reported no particularly unpleasant memories of his years in Special Education, and felt he got along quite well with limited reading abilities. The spray-painter, aged 26, also enjoyed his work in a small industrial firm, and talked of wanting to try an interesting course "someday" at the community college. However, he had figured out how to circumvent his literacy problems at work, and thought of further education in terms of "sitting in a classroom," taking time from his many projects at home. The 42 year old custodian had taken a course paid for by his employer once, but his goal was to find another custodial job with more convenient hours, and his reading and writing skills were sufficient for this kind of work. The retired woman wished she had had more opportunities as a child for education, but had a routine now that revolved around friends and family. Her major aspiration of learning traditional Native American hymns could be accomplished without literacy.

Group 3: Intermediate Connection

The main rationale for this grouping was to include the three individuals falling into neither the "weak" nor the "strong" connector categories. People in this group did connect literacy and goals; further literacy education was necessary either to communicate better, to get a diploma, or to get a job requiring good reading and writing skills. While all were engaged in educational activities, they did not report them with the same tone of urgency and emotion as did the strong connectors. Ted, for example, was 57, retired, and living off income from a trust fund set up for him by his parents. He had lots of hobbies and did occasional yard work for his neighbors, and had enrolled in the one-on-one tutor program to improve his reading and writing skills. Although he was not actively working with his tutor at the time of the interview, he wanted to get started again as soon as the weather got better. Cheryl, 22, dropped out of school at 16 when she became pregnant with her first child. Her many career goals--court recorder, psychiatrist, working with animals--were abstract at the time of the first interview because of her more immediate stated need of taking care of two young children. But, by the time of the second interview, she had plans to study with a tutor for the GED in winter, take the GED in summer, and enroll in the community college the next fall. Rex, a mildly retarded man of 35, left a GED program when it moved from its convenient location, but was pursuing involvement in the literacy tutor program because he thought it would help him read better.

Group 4: Strong Connection

The emotional tone of statements about literacy and about goals distinguished most of those in the "strong connection" category from those in the intermediate category. Goals were either literacy itself or literacy-dependent. The six people making strong connections between the learning of literacy skills and attainment of aspirations fell into three subgroups.

In the first, two women around 30 described unhappy marriages. Both saw literacy as a way out; in Laura's words, "I thought it was about time to do something, quit letting people step all over me...I want to learn, if anything ever does happen, I want to be able to do it." The first step of enrolling in a literacy tutoring program was as symbolic as it was concrete; working towards greater independence as well as such practical goals as obtaining a driver's license.

An equally strong emotional link was made by three men around 40. Literacy was the missing piece in their lives: Ronald had tried three times to get a GED, and failed each time. He believed strongly that once he got a tutor who knew enough about dyslexia to teach him properly, his life would change. Mixed in with his description of his "struggle" against reading problems were his fight with alcoholism and his conversion to Christianity. Ralph's connection was also strong, if not as passionate as Ronald's. With the help of a psychohypnotist, he uncovered details of a childhood trauma, the suppression of which he believed had hampered learning processes. He reported that work towards his short term goal, learning to read and write well enough to get a GED, was greatly facilitated by his improved mental state. Jeff, who prided himself on keeping in shape and on using creative ways to circumvent his literacy problems on the job, said he couldn't "be second-best, except for one thing, that's reading." He wanted to read badly, but got discouraged when he thought of the amount of time it would take to learn to read, and then to apply these skills to the learning of another trade.

Daryl, aged 21, was an exception to the others in this grouping because of his lack of anxiety around literacy and his matter-of-fact way of dealing with barriers. Although he had severe reading problems because of dyslexia, he had started to learn compensatory reading techniques in high school. When he went on to the community college he took advantage of the state's provision of "readers" for dyslexics and also asked friends and teachers to help him out if necessary. His goals were to eventually get a college degree, and he was following a very mainstream approach to get there.

Source of Connections

Following are some of the conditions that appeared to affect the intensity of connections for low literates, thus, a need to change. In no case did the presence of one condition alone mean a respondent made a stronger or weaker connection between literacy and goals. Similarly, there was no combination of conditions that led to either stronger or weaker connections.

1) *Contentment with present job.* Some respondents who made weak connections between literacy education and goal achievement, or who rejected any connection, loved the work they were doing--in the case of respondents who worked as loggers, because it allowed them to be out in the mountains. A chance to improve reading and writing skills would not alter their work choice. On the other hand, discontent with jobs led some respondents to greater interest in literacy *when* their work aspirations were literacy-dependent.

2) *Contentment with primary relationships.* Women who felt oppressed by their marital situation saw literacy as a path to greater independence because of the opportunities they could avail themselves of if they could read better (driver's licenses and GEDs). The reverse, satisfaction with primary relationships, was only tangential to connections.

3) *Self concept.* The need to avoid being "second best" motivated some respondents to work towards greater literacy simply because they saw literacy as the major area in life where they were weak. At the same time, however, lack of confidence, "fear of failure", often stymied the same people in making a concerted effort towards literacy. Many respondents spoke alternately about really wanting to learn to read and write and feeling they could do it; and being afraid, of having to "accept (their) destiny" of never attaining a sufficient level of literacy for their goals.

4) *View of the future.* A respondent's view of the future affected the "immediacy" of any perceived need for literacy. Several of the men who made a strong connection between literacy education and fulfilling aspirations had worked for many years in the woods, as loggers and fire fighters. As they approached 40, they started having back problems--this meant a change to less active, "desk" jobs, which suggested to them a need for better literacy skills. One exception was Jeff, who saw literacy as a way to attain his goals more for reasons of self-esteem than work; "not wanting to be second best." Because he was in good physical shape, he could defer the need to move on to easier work for a few more years. Another respondent provided ample evidence of how changes in technology were affecting his job. His specific reasons for enrolling in literacy education programs were "because everything's computers now", as well as simply wanting to read better. Lastly, Jake, who rejected further education as benefitting his goals, still had an inkling that this feeling might change when he "decided to get serious."

5) *Clarity of goals.* In general, respondents with one or two clear goals were more likely to have in mind a way to achieve them. In some cases, literacy was the vehicle; in other cases, means such as "getting into the family business" were described. Or in some cases, the goal was simply to keep doing what they were doing.

Women with young children sometimes reported a profusion of occupation goals. The realities of motherhood often meant that most were on hold until a future time when action could be taken. However, when some of these same women spoke of educational goals, such as getting a GED or enrolling in a tutor program, they outlined concrete steps they had taken or planned to take. In these cases education was depicted as a first step to an "eventual" literacy-related job.

6) *Understanding the nature of barriers.* Deciding to improve reading and writing skills did not necessarily mean entering a program. In one case, the respondent realized the barrier to understanding what she read was her feeling that she should rely upon her husband to interpret things for her...the beginning of change was the realization that she no longer "wanted to be so dependent." In another case, the way to improve skills was participation in a program and seeking to understand psychological

barriers linked to childhood trauma that rendered concentration on learning tasks difficult.

7) *Social network compensating for lack of skills.* As mentioned, all of the men who rejected a connection between further literacy education and goal achievement reported supportive wives. Those who closely associated further education as a way to accomplish goals also had strong support of spouses, but more in terms of moral encouragement than in taking over literacy tasks. Fingeret (1983) and Lewis (1985) have both closely examined the role of social networks in individuals' decisions about literacy.

Summary

Basic motivators for change, propelling low-literates either toward or away from a perception of literacy education as a way of getting what they want, related primarily to the emotional realm: level of contentment with present job and primary relationships, and self concept. Three interpretative skills--the ability to envision the future, to forge one or two clear goals, and to understand the nature of barriers to learning behavior and practice--facilitated decisions to improve reading and writing skills. The social network formed the context of both basic motivators and interpreting skills, serving as either encouragement or discouragement to an individual's motivation to change.

Further analysis of study data will concentrate on clarifying relationships between basic motivators, interpretative skills and social network. Contentment or lack of contentment with work, important relationships, and with self led to either stability or the dissonance that motivates change. Important to adult educators is what low-literates do with these basic motivators. When and how did respondents develop abilities to translate feelings of content and discontent into decisions about learning, and who helped or hindered this process? We need to know more about the social environment in which low-reading adults' views of the future are forged, life goals are clarified, and barriers to learning "labelled" and understood. The illumination of these relationships will lead to a research base which will enable researchers and practitioners to respond to learner needs through specific contexts of learning and decision-making rather than standard programs.

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Symposium
Reflections of Adult Education Researchers on Their Constraints and Tradeoffs

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Abstract

Underlying research obligations are constraints (such as money, institutional biases, the rush to meet tenure requirements, publication or other deadlines), the tradeoffs we make (such as whose purposes we will address, scope and depth vs. time and efficiency), and the contradictions we face (such as writing against the status quo and at the same time supporting it through the very techniques and forums we use). Why do we make the choices we do? What kind of validation do researchers in adult education seek? What motives and forces drive and define our research? All researchers make choices of politics, payoffs, and context, yet these kinds of issues are rarely discussed in open forum fashion despite the relevance to researchers as individuals and to the field as a whole.

Purposes of the Symposium

This symposium is a unique attempt to delve beneath mere methodological differences toward a reflective analysis of the forces driving adult education researchers. Deliberating on the personal and systematic relevance of their research, the panelists illuminate taken-for-granted assumptions about the role of researcher in adult education. To what extent, and whose values are served, when research is conducted for a tangible payoff, such as tenure, fame, profit, or publication? How are the directions of the field shaped when research is conducted for such reasons as to critically examine our assumptions, to correct societal inequities, or to raise consciousness? How does it come to be that some researchers can take the stance of social critic and yet pay no price?

Reflective discussion is usually confined to non-formal arenas, and cannot typically be found in graduate classes, conferences, or workshops. How often do we discuss our contradictions for our colleagues' examination? The field of adult education and its research has undergone tremendous transformation in recent years. It is important for us to give honest appraisal of our contributions toward those changes. The ends are rich-- to uncover the potential of research in adult education. An infinite number of topics and research orientations lie before us. It is simply responsible scholarship to examine our choices, so that we may face the future together with hope and confidence. In short, there is a reason and a place for us to examine our struggles as researchers for the purpose of extending our conception of what it means to be adult educators.

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The importance of this symposium is that it helps us all understand how we, as researchers, enhance capacities, identify limits and constraints, and uncork potentials. Without such introspection, the research processes we utilize by themselves limit the depth and extent of our investigations, and render, at times, dilettante political performances. Once understood, these contradictions give way to more modest appraisals of our roles, yet provide realistic stances to continue into the future. Before we can look deeper into our chosen areas, we must first understand then go beyond our constraints.

The Challenge to Members of the Symposium

Among the panelists are a quantitative researcher, with contributions mainly in the area of adult literacy; a phenomenology/hermaneutics researcher who has studied critical theory (meta-analysis) and prison settings; a statistics and quantitative researcher who has contributed to the literature on continuing professional education with both quantitative and critical analysis dimensions; a critical theorist with interests in feminism and post structuralism; a quantitative researcher who has worked in the area of instructional design with the military; and a qualitative and phenomenology researcher who has contributed mostly to the literature of voluntary action and adult literacy. The challenge put to the panelists can be summarized in four parts:

1. What is the nature of their struggles when posing research questions? Specifically, what constraints are the most challenging?
2. How have they understood and come to terms with the role of the "researching professor?" To what extent do they understand the various organizational, contextual, and political constraints?
3. How have choices of methodology been made in light of tradeoffs of time, payoff, importance, and quality?
4. What directions do they seek for their research in the future and for the field as a whole?

As researchers in adult education, some of us follow political ends, others fashion ourselves to be scientists, and probably all of us favor certain methodologies over others. One member of the panel, an experimental design methodologist, views himself as more of a pollster than a scientist. Though offense may be taken by those who seek scientific answers, the pollster label poses no problem for the panelist. Involvement in active problem solving, through deciphering how the world looks to different groups of people, is, in this person's opinion, a crucial professorial act. In an attempt to avoid the frequent problem of making assumptions about groups of people when formulating policy, this researcher tries to give voice to people, or at least understand their voice, by drawing together their conscious statements. Though there are inherent constraints in survey research, this panelist believes the information is useful because we've codified their opinions.

Another panelist canvasses the historical course of the critical research tradition, uncovering inherent contradictions of our work, noting particularly the unrealistic nature of a radical perspective (such as Freire's) in the North American context, how critical theory may not be easily translated to everyday life, how the professoriat may have recently opened up its interests and scope, yet must abide by standards of practice, and, most importantly, how we as individuals can follow our instincts of conducting good research and at the same time gain system validation and legitimation. Even those who claim ability and desire to question taken-for-granted assumptions about our field and its pedagogical strategies and reasonings, may take a hard and skeptical look at their own work in critical history, conceptual analysis, and phenomenology to describe the shortcomings, pitfalls, as well as the benefits of these approaches. Adult education researchers adopting a critical approach should be prepared to; 1) specify the grounds or distinct orientations from which their critique is advanced, and, 2) identify locations, away from the relatively safe haven of academia, where they try to follow through on the commitments implied by their research. Perhaps there is a distinction to be made between critical thinking and critical reasoning, and a need to take issue with the liberal (and relatively receptive critical theory) by the academe of adult education. In short, what does it mean to our everyday lives to take the stances we do? How does being a Gramcian in an academic setting, for example, relate to one's actions in the street or at home? Perhaps such a justification of purpose is unwarranted. Nevertheless, there is plenty of reason to understand the constraints and tradeoffs of our purposes.

It cannot be expected that there is any one set of right responses to such questions. They are intensely personal. Rather, responses can be judged according to clarity, consistency, and believability. There is, regrettably, an element of risk when one reflects on his or her own practice among colleagues.

Constraints of Research

All researchers face decisions about the kind of questions to ask, how to seek answers, and with whom to work and share results. These decisions are influenced by a host of identifiable systematic and personal constraints, such as the constraints of time and money, the constraints posed by professional standards of practice, institutional constraints, constraints within our chosen paradigms, and, perhaps most importantly, the constraints of conscience. It is upon these constraints we wish to focus.

To elaborate, we are constrained by a contradiction between what is legitimate and valid within the profession and what is deemed legitimate and valid within the university structure. In a rising modern profession, it is common for researchers to contribute to policy formulation and to enhance the quality of life of disenfranchised and oppressed people. Researchers of adult education may well gain legitimacy and validation within the profession through attempts to influence the status quo. The very words we use, such as "critical consciousness," "giving voice to people," and "popular education," connote change, power, and self-control. For most of us, however, our reward structure lies within the university setting. Doctoral and professorial research both lie within the constraints of the university system, where long-standing traditional definitions of research, curriculum policy, and rules for legitimacy and advancement may delimit our undertakings. Consequently, there is a dilemma between fulfilling the mission and promise of adult education with the constraints of our institutional setting.

1. Constraints of time and money. In what ways would additional time and money improve the outcome(s) of the research?
2. Constraints of the profession.
   A. The mission. How does the research contribute to the mission of adult education? Is it appropriately linked to practice?
   B. The standards. Does the research meet standards of committees, editorial boards, and the professorate?
3. Constraints of the university.
   A. The payoffs. Will completion of the research provide the proper recognition, advancement, and/or monetary rewards? Is there evidence of a sustained research agenda?
   B. Curriculum. Does the research meet curriculum guidelines?
4. Constraints of our paradigm. Can the questions we ask be answered within our paradigms and with our methods?
5. Constraints of conscience. To what extent can we satisfy the various constraints above and still meet our commitments of conscience?

Uneasy Tradeoffs Posed by Constraints

One way of understanding organizational and professional constraints on research is to examine the tradeoffs researchers make. Just as all research is shaped by organizational and professional constraints, all researchers make tradeoffs. By juxtaposing the constraints listed above with others, we can see why we make the choices we do. The following are merely representative:

1. Mission of adult education vs. institutional constraints. There are choices of mission. What kind of meaning do we want our research to have?
2. Time and resource constraints vs. quality. We settle on levels of quality according to availability of resources. What level of quality do we seek?
3. Paradigmatic and methodological constraints vs. the audience. The language we use and the tools of our craft may separate us from the people we intend to assist. How are the research questions influenced by the technical aspects of our methodologies? How much does our discipline separate us from the people we intend to serve?
4. Fulfillment of others' expectations vs. fulfillment of our own commitments. The importance of the reward structure determines how we conduct research, who we work with, and how we decide to share results. Whose values are we serving?
5. Constraints of job or position security vs. constraints of conscience. How far researchers go with topics under investigation requires balancing security needs with constraints of conscience. How has our research influenced our own lives? To what extent do we put ourselves into the research?

How a researcher resolves the tradeoffs is, in large measure, a matter of personal style, preferences, and values. We all make choices of service. Sometimes the best we can do is to caste aside our personal preferences in favor of security and the quest for legitimization.

Conclusion

By its very nature, research in adult education is conducted for some purpose, in some social context, and with some methodology. As such, there must always be choices and constraints. Among the researchers on this panel, there is a correlation between the way they contend with the everyday constraints and their levels of conscience that lead them to deciding what questions to ask, and what meaning their work will have. The meaning of our research is predicated on the courage, or lack of it, to face and understand what it is we trade away. The constraints require justification. Whether we stand outside and observe others within, even with claims of finding the "truth" about them, or if we join forces with the oppressed to help raise their awareness, there is hidden immodesty in our work, a contradiction of purpose with constraints, that cannot be reconciled without deliberate examination of conscience. For understandable reasons, the safety of the profession, and the comfort of our institutions, may take precedence over beating the streets to achieve a more equitable social order. If so, let us continue to reflect on our constraints and tradeoffs so at least we will know the limits of our work.

SYMPOSIUM: TRANSFORMATIVE ASPECTS OF RESEARCH ON ADULT LEARNING

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Abstract: **This symposium will focus on transformative aspects of research in adult learning. Its broader purpose is to initiate a general discussion of transformative research in adult education.**

Background

In July 1988 a group of adult education practitioners, faculty and graduate students from North and South America, Europe, Africa, Asia and the South Pacific assembled in Leeds, England to create a structure for fostering "international" research in adult education. After much debate, revealing widely divergent perspectives on the production and use of knowledge, the majority of the group agreed to accept transformative research as the umbrella concept for future activities.

Character of Transformative Research

The concept of transformative research conveys several concerns expressed by different factions: 1) It suggests a link between adult education research and movements for social change; 2) It proposes the possibility of new relationships between participants in the research process--i.e., between researchers and subjects; 3) It identifies a desirable outcome for research without specifying a particular research method or paradigm; 4) It points to the need for constructive ways to reveal, examine and discuss the different perspectives that inevitably come into play when researchers from the "North" and the "South" share their experiences with one another.

The Problem: Issues for Researchers

The issues surrounding transformative research touch on deeply held values. Some adult educators contend that psychological perspectives focus on the individual at the expense of needed social understanding. Other researchers say that learning is inherently individual and must be understood as a psychological process. A number see critical theory as a suitable intellectual bridge between psychological isolationism and social theory. Some participatory researchers, often from the "South," explain that they are working to improve the lot of the oppressed and the poor, and that this automatically places them in conflict with those involved with reproducing the status quo. Many adult educators, frequently from the "North," observe that people who are not poor by world standards may also be oppressed; some go on to suggest that improving the lot of anyone begins with increasing knowledge and overcoming internal and external barriers to participation. An intersecting line of thought critiques the actual processes of reasearch. Does a particular approach to producing and using knowledge lead to or inhibit personal and social transformation? Participatory research is sometimes upheld as transformative and emancipatory, but because participatory research is conducted by a group, and not owned or controlled by an individual or an academic discipline, there is debate over whether it is social action or real research. Clearly, the complex issues raised here are important to a field concerned with adult education and learning.

Method

This symposium will focus on transformative aspects of research in one area--adult learning. Each presenter will approach the topic from a different perspective, illustrating her or his way of thinking with a short presentation of research on adult learning associated with personal or social transformation. During the second half of the symposium, members of the audience will be asked to outline transformative aspects of their research on adult learning, and the group will discuss broader concepts and implications. The object of the symposium is to engage the group in savoring the transformative potentials of adult education research.

LEARNING TO WRITE POETRY IS LIKE....

Jane Munro, Adult Education Research Centre, UBC

Problem: The problem posed by the creative writing workshops I have taught over the past ten years is how to help students improve their writing. Raw poems are closely related to the unresolved feelings and habitual turns of mind of the poet; helping a student to revise an early draft can be difficult. Every time a poet starts a new poem, she or he risks transformative learning.

Method: I collected written responses from seven graduates and eight undergraduates in two poetry workshops running from September to April. I wanted to find out how they described the learning processes they were going through. I supplied them with phrases which they completed. These included: "Learning to write poetry is like...." "Composing poetry is...." "When I transform my thinking, I do it by...." "The place I go in my mind when I write...." In analyzing their responses I paid attention to clusters of metaphors and to differences between the graduates and the undergraduates.

Description of the Data: At the time of writing, I have collected three sets of responses. The most striking pattern in them is that learning to write poetry (and also, transforming their thinking) engages the conscious mind, but it also involves a journey through the unconscious. There is a difference between the graduates and the undergraduates in the amount of connection with the unconscious they depict. Almost all the graduates describe learning to write poetry as a process that takes them into the dark or the invisible or the unknown; the undergraduates describe a more conscious process of making choices and assembling elements.

Conclusions: When Mezirow, Knowles, Freire and other contributors to the literature of adult education speak of the transformation of epistemological, ideological and psychological distortions, the process they describe is one of cognitive reflection and analysis. This is similar to the perception of beginning poets. As poets mature in their art they recognize that those who suffer a sea-change dive deep; their structures become metaphor, a currency of exchange when they barter with past, present and future for transformed meanings.

BLACK AND WHITE WORKING-CLASS WOMEN'S LEARNING: CONCEPTS OF POWER

Wendy Luttrell, Duke University

In this paper I will explore two issues. First, if "transformative" research, teaching and learning is about critically evaluating how people reinterpret their lives in the world so that change is made possible, then we need to know much more about how change is made. While most of the adult education literature approaches this question from an individual perspective--how do individuals learn or change--I would suggest that we explore the question of change from a collective perspective. The questions then become: How do people articulate and act upon their varied collective identities and interests in the learning process? What concepts of power do they develop as a result? Second, how can adult basic education practice reshape these collective identities and concepts of power to facilitate rather than further inhibit change?

My research on Black and white working-class women's learning is based on participant observation in two adult education programs and in-depth interviews probing school, family and work histories. The Black women, all raised in rural southeastern farming communities, attended segregated schools and have worked as housekeepers and service workers for most of their lives. They currently attend a workplace literacy program in a southeastern state university. The white women, all raised in an urban northeastern ethnic community (mostly Irish and Polish), attended neighborhood schools (both public and parochial), and have worked as clericals, waitresses, and factory hands. They were attending a community-based adult education program in their neighborhood when the study began in 1980. The women do not have comparable life experiences; they represent two distinct cultures and sets of collective identities, interests, and capabilities. I am viewing them in tandem to highlight complex gender, race, and class relations which shape their learning styles and knowing.

The women's learning styles draw upon concepts of power they developed in school as children, particularly their beliefs about teacher's pets and "good vs. bad" teachers. Two contradictory concepts of power emerge as they reflect and reinterpret their relationships and experiences in school. On the one hand, the women depict schooling and education as a negative form of power whereby middle-class teachers used their power and knowledge over working-class students, generally at the expense of some students over others. At the same time, they view their own power as positive, a way to enable, nurture or care for others, even at their own expense. School knowledge represents a dominating form of "power over" others, while the women's motherwise, streetwise, or common sense knowledge represents a potentially transformative form of "power to" affect others. Despite this general similarity in interpretation, each group of women lived out their perceptions of power in two distinct cultural contexts, attaching different meanings to their victimization and agency.

Struggles over authority characterize schooling for the white, working-class women. They recast their relationships with teachers as a choice between rebelling and acquiescing to teacher's expectations and authority, viewing school as a battle over who "knew" more and whose values would predominate. Booklearning was viewed as a test of power and authority vis a vis the teacher rather than a journey to reveal certain truths about self. As a result, the white women's learning style is characterized by a fear of making mistakes in the educational process. As a group they were wary of pedagogical practice which altered traditional, hierarchical student-teacher relationships or focused on their own experiences as the content of curriculum. The Black women do not articulate the same concern with authority. Instead, struggles over self worth characterize their relationship with teachers. They recast schooling as a battle for survival, a collective exercise in coping with harsh rural living conditions, scarce school resources, and the realities of school segregation. School was not viewed as a battleground over who "knew" more, but rather over who was permitted to know. As a result, the Black women's learning style is characterized by mistaken fears about their capabilities. While they seem more comfortable with innovative approaches in the classroom, they are more teacher-dependent, inhibiting their ability to name and claim their own intellectual capacities. For both groups of women, these learning styles are not individual, but rather located in the women's historic and social relationship to power.

While schooling encouraged women to individualize and psychologize the nature of power, they also came to understand their own power in ways which valued the personal. Ironically, what propelled women out of school in the past was, in part, what propelled them into school at a future time. Their insights about school and school knowledge as a set of ongoing relationships, both inherited and made, motivated them to seek to remake these relationships, themselves and their claims to knowledge.

The women's concepts of power suggest that we revise adult basic education practice. As long as adult learning falsely dichotomizes and then privileges rational, productive, "schooled" knowledge required of men and women as adult citizens over the "intuitive," "caretaking" knowledge which also constitutes adult life and provides the possibility for growth and change, women will be caught in a paradoxical situation vis a vis adult basic education.

THE RESEARCH RELATIONSHIP - TRANSFORMATIVE ASPECTS

Boyd E. Rossing

Research practice in adult aducation is quite eclectic. Our research traditions are largely drawn from perspectives in the social sciences and humanities. A perspective on research that is uniquely derived from or applicable to adult education has yet to emerge. The concept of transformative research may, however, hold such potential. In this presentation I discuss the meaning of transformative research and then consider transformative aspects of the relationship between parties in the research process.

Across all spheres of American society today we are seeing calls for transformation. Business leaders, government leaders and social leaders are all raising questions regarding conventional relationships and ways of doing things in their sector and calling for new visions and new processes for achieving them. The most recent addition is the formation of a transformative research network in adult education. What does transformation mean? What does it refer to?

One adult educator who has used the term transformation, Jack Mezirow, links it to perspectives. He refers to perspective transformation as a reconstitution of the structure of psycho-cultural assumptions through which a person assimilates new experiences and interprets old ones. This seems to imply a change in some basic aspect of one's way of understanding and acting in the world. Citing lifespan psychologist Broughton, Mezirow argues that only in late adolescence and adulthood does a person come to recognize being caught in reliving his or her own history. Only then does one begin to consider alternative ways of thinking, the influences of those alternatives and the possibilities of changing one's perspectives.

Mezirow has been criticized by Colin Griffin for adopting an individual, subjectively focused application of critical theory while neglecting the equally important concept of societal transformation. The latter refers to changing the objective economic, political and, or cultural aspects of social situations, aspects that are beyond the power of particular individuals to influence at a particular time (Carr and Kemmis, 1986). The process of societal transformation is, of necessity, collective. While acknowledging the important connection of individual to societal transformation, my remarks, like Mezirow, probably attend more to individual change than to societal change.

What then is the connection between research and personal or societal transformation? I would like to take the position that adult education research can or might serve as a vehicle of leadership for personal and social transformation. In one sense research is inherently transformational because it is a collective process that over the long term tends to lead to new perspectives that contribute to re-ordering of societal institutions and practice. My emphasis here is on compressing the transformative aspects in time and focusing them more directly on the immediate participants in a research project, those who set questions, and collect, interpret and use data.

The concept of research as a means of personal, organization and/or societal change is not new. Action research, action science and participatory research all incorporate this idea. In addition, they all emphasize the idea that research is a relational process, a process of collective inquiry and collaborative action. They reject the separation of researcher from the "objects" of his or her study, and from responsibility for acting on the basis of research findings. While I won't argue that transformative adult education research must be participatory and action oriented I submit that the greatest promise for transformation lies in these forms of research. To support this point let me turn to the concept of research as leadership.

James McGregor Burns (1978) has proposed a comprehensive theory of leadership and interestingly transformational leadership is one of two major forms. According to Burns transformational leadership is a relational process in which a leader empowers followers to pursue a transformed vision of personal and societal possibilities, a vision that unifies leaders and followers. The leader does this by focusing on the needs of the group, helping individuals to examine and change their motives and building confidence to achieve new aspirations. Transforming one's perspectives is neither easy, nor frequently sought on one's own. A leadership initiative is frequently needed. Therefore, the relationship of parties in the endeavor is a critical element in transformation. Thus if adult education research is to serve a transformative function a key consideration is the relationship between parties in the research process.

An especially fruitful topic for illustration of these ideas is that of research on adult learning. If in the course of studying learning the researchers/learners come to a better understanding of their own learning processes, those processes will become available for examination and change. It is hard to imagine anything more transformational than re-constituting one's ways of learning.

How might research on adult learning contribute to personal transformation? For illustration I will briefly trace two approaches to a study of what and how individuals learn about effective community group functioning through the experience of participating in community groups. For each approach I will outline transformative implications.

In the first approach (Rossing, 1987) the researcher team independently determined the study focus and methods and then invited community group members to participate. The researchers initiated a loosely structured interview with each participant whereby the participant was encouraged to recall beliefs about community groups and to discuss experiences that affected those beliefs. The researchers accepted participant beliefs and experiences uncritically. Following the interviews the researchers independently analyzed the interview transcripts, derived concepts to explain the findings and reported results at professional meetings and in professional publications. There were no further contacts of any substance between researchers and community participants.

What were the transformative aspects of this research approach? Only a few instances of transformed perspectives were evident in participant recollections. Most of the learning instances pertained to changes in fairly specific action strategies, what Hambermas would call practical learning Mezirow), 1981). Only rarely did the interview transaction itself yield something near to a transformation of the participant's understanding of himself or herself at the time. The greatest amount of transformation occurred in the two researchers. Each one, and particularly I, the principle investigator, found ourselves reexamining our concepts of learning and our concepts of research practice.

How could this study be re-approached in a way that would have greater transformative implications for all parties? Drawing on concepts of transformational leadership I would foresee changes in at least the following: 1) the participation of parties in setting the study focus and design, 2) attending to real time experience and belief as well as recalled, 3) the relationships of parties over time.

To achieve these changes researchers would engage in an exploration with group participants of the values and possibilites of devoting time to reflecting on their current and past group behaviors and beliefs as part of and contributory to their ongoing program of action. Alternatively individuals in several groups might be invited to meet collectively to engage in such an exploration. While attention to practical learning might prevail at first the researcher(s) would invite attention to more transformative examinations. Over time all parties would become researcher/participants and collaborate in shaping the study focus and methods. The researcher's relationship to participants would be ongoing, would seek to equalize power, and would yield benefits to all parties.

I believe the latter approach would be much more likely to foster personal transformation within participants and possibly societal transformation through actions prompted by new perspectives. Such an approach integrates education, action and research. Like any integration such an approach also blurs the distinct identity of the contributing processes. To truly effect this approach on a wide scale would thus call for a transformation of the meaning and practice of adult education research, no easy matter, but one that challenges us today.

ENDING THE TYRANNY OF SIGNIFICANCE TESTING: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH AND REPORTING

Lola Aagaard, University of Oklahoma

Imagine going to two AERC paper sessions and being presented with the following results:

1. "No difference was found between the mean GRE scores of 20 traditional students (verbal=600) and 20 nontraditional students (verbal=520) -- p=.11, alpha=.05."
2. "There was a significant difference between the mean GRE scores of 26 traditional students (verbal=600) and 26 nontraditional students (verbal=520) -- p=.04, alpha=.05."

How would you evaluate and resolve this apparent contradiction? A knowledge of the relationships among effect size, power, and probability values is necessary. Contrary to common opinion and practice, a p-value less than .05 is not the ultimate objective of quantitative research. Rather, the goal is to identify meaningful relationships among variables, and that is not possible with significance testing alone. Effect size is the indicator of meaningful relationships, and it, unlike a p-value, will remain relatively constant regardless of sample size.

Given that two variables are related, the more subjects that are included in the data analysis, the smaller the p-value will be. This is due to the increase in power obtained by a larger sample size. Conversely, power is decreased with a smaller sample size, and the p-value will be larger for the same two variables. With a large enough sample size, one can find even a trivial relationship to be statistically significant. However, to determine what is a meaningful relationship, a researcher must consider effect size.

A simple measure of effect size is the difference between the means being tested divided by the standard deviation. This gives an effect size coefficient in standard deviation units -- thus, an effect size of 0.10 would mean that the means differed by only one tenth of a standard deviation. Similarly, an effect size of 1.00 would indicate a difference of an entire standard deviation between the means, and would generally be of more interest. Effect sizes are commonly classified as small (.20), medium (.50), and large (.80).

Going back to our initial hypothetical example, the GRE is standardized on a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100 points. Knowing this, we can calculate that the 80 point difference between 520 and 600 is an effect size of .80. The different p-values were due to the varying sample sizes -- twenty subjects per group were simply not enough to find a large effect to be significant at alpha=.05.

The more subjects you have, the smaller effect you can find. Thus, research with very large samples may reveal statistically significant, although trivial, differences. The consistent reporting of samples sizes, means, and standard deviations, in addition to p-values, will allow readers of research to determine for themselves the meaning of the research results.

ANATOMY OF AN ANOMALY IN CLE: A DECIDEDLY DIFFERENT CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Dana Blanchard*

Literature on continuing legal education (CLE) indicates that the vast majority of CLE programs involve a series of lectures which are delivered to participants who have a prevailing passive attitude toward the learning experience (Vernon, 1983). This frequent dependence upon lectures is considered a major weakness of CLE programs nationwide and is symptomatic of many continuing professional education programs. However, literature does stress a noteworthy exception to this rule: the "hands on" approach being incorporated into certain CLE programs concerned with trial advocacy. This teaching approach, first developed by the National Institute of Trial Advocacy (NITA), has considerable enthusiastic support from the law profession. Janofsky (1980), who has served as president of the American Bar Association, expressed the desirability for this type of teaching approach to be utilized in the teaching of non-trial skills as well. The enthusiasm for the NITA style learning experience has been dampened only by its inaccessibility to more lawyers, due to the relatively high tuition and lengthy amount of professional time required to attend such a course.

This study focuses upon a major provider of CLE in a southwestern state that has an agenda of programs very similar to that described in literature. All of its continuing education programs are centered upon lecture filled seminars, either partial day, full day, or series of days, with one exception: an intensive, interactive short course on trial advocacy which has created great enthusiasm in the providers and participants alike. A selection of directors, facilitators, and participants involved in the short course will be interviewed for the purpose of identifying the programmatic and personal factors unique to this particular CLE program. It is anticipated that these unique components may possibly include both philosophical and motivational as well as logistical aspects that make its attitudinal outcome different from the more prevalent seminar.

The resulting description of characteristics would be helpful in identifying more specifically those factors which may need to be incorporated into other continuing legal education offerings. It may also serve as a guide in effectively integrating these components within the mainstream of CLE program offerings and serve as an example to other professions interested in continuing education.

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A CONTEMPORARY LOOK AT EFFECTIVENESS OF CONTINUING MEDICAL EDUCATION

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The desired outcome of most continuing medical education (CME) programs is to effect changes in physician practice behavior which have greater potential to improve patient health. There is little empirical evidence CME works, although there is ample evidence knowledge is gained as a result of CME. Knowledge gain does not necessarily indicate significant gain in competence or change in performance which leads to improved patient outcome. Determining patient outcomes is difficult. CME providers and physicians believe it is nearly an insurmountable task to establish a direct connection between a continuing education effort and improvement in patient health.

There are many inherent problems in trying to evaluate CME. Determining patient outcomes and desired physician behavior are two obstacles which first come to providers' attention. Because of other influences (professional journals, professional societies, colleagues, books, and pharmaceutical representatives) that are as likely to change the way a physician manages a patient as CME, it is difficult to demonstrate CME intervention is the cause of a change in physician performance. This is the most difficult issue for CME evaluation to address.

Continuing education provides the primary mode for educating and updating physicians to the latest technological advances that impact their practice behavior and allow them to operate competently. They must pursue and achieve new goals as well as master new knowledge and skills in a world where technological obsolescence is a constant threat (Houle, 1980).

Physicians are professionally obligated, and in many states mandated, to update their knowledge and skills. What role does CME play in this process? This poster session presents a synthesis of relevant evaluation research literature, arguments upholding and repudiating CME effectiveness, and an analysis of current issues confronting the field, such as, mandatory CME to retain practice privileges within hospitals and how CME credit should be given for self-directed learning. Possible solutions to problems and recommendations for future directions for CME research will be offered.

CROSS' CHAIN-OF-RESPONSE AS A PREDICTOR FOR REGISTERED NURSES' PARTICIPATION IN CONTINUING EDUCATION

The United States' health care system is undergoing rapid, extensive change. With the high technology that is continually being developed, further drastic changes are inevitable. Nurses, therefore, need to stay abreast of the increasing complexity in health care through continuing education, utilizing both formal and informal educational methods. Because continuing education is important for nursing it is important to learn more about participation in continuing education.

Participation in continuing education has been studied from a number of perspectives. One of the most useful frameworks is Cross' Chain-of-Response (COR). Cross (1981) theorized that participation in educational activities was a result of a chain of responses: self-evaluation, attitudes about education, importance of goals and expectations that participation will meet the goals, life transitions, opportunities and barriers to learning, accurate information (linking the learner and educational opportunities), and finally participation in the educational activity. Once an adult has participated in an educational endeavor, the more likely the participation in future educational opportunities will occur.

One study performed utilizing Cross' COR framework was that done by Dolphin (1986). She studied the relationship between demographic variables and locus of control in her comparison of participants and non-participants in continuing nursing education.

The proposed study will examine indicators of the following COR elements: self-evaluation (locus of control), importance of goals, and life transitions (related to the individual and family stage of life cycle development) as they relate to registered nurses' participation in both formal and informal continuing nursing education. Posters will illustrate the obtained relationships among COR elements vis á vis participation in continuing nursing education.

Pat Dolphin, Ph.D.,R.N. and Barbara Schrage, M.S.N.,R.N.

The DOs and DON'Ts of Developing and Implementing Surveys for Research Purposes

by

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Abstract: This poster session consists of 15 large posters which cover the basics for developing and implementing a survey for research purposes. A handout which summarizes the posters and includes a bibliography will be available.

The 15 posters will cover the following topics:

1. Needs assessment - is a survey the best information gathering device for your particular need?
2. Determine population - is this a random sample or are all in the predetermined population to be surveyed?
3. Number of surveys (N) needed to be analyzed vs. number distributed. What percentage of surveys are likely to be returned? What is an acceptable amount for validity?
4. Distribution and collection methods - how is the survey to be distributed and how is it to be collected?
5. Time length given to complete survey and follow-up letter(s).
6. Marketing tips - use colored paper, use a commemorative postage stamp, enclose stamped, self-addressed return envelope, arrange to have a mailed survey arrive on a Tuesday, Wednesday or Thursday, etc.
7. Hypotheses - what do you expect to find out and why?
8. Actual survey construction - length, reading level, check marks vs. circling or short answers, type style and print size.
9. Inclusion of demographic information - what information can legally be asked and how will this information be helpful?
10. Examples of different rating scales and "anchors" which may be used and the pros and cons of each.
11. Who will administer the survey?
12. How to set up a codebook for analyzing data via a computer.
13. Evaluation of survey results and the survey process.
14. Examples of putting survey results into a meaningful format for future presentations or for publication.
15. Drawing implications from your survey research while sticking to the hard data.

Bruce Goff: Reflections on a Master of the Reflective Practicum

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Abstract: The late Bruce Alonzo Goff (1904 - 1982) was an architectural prodigy. At the age of eleven, he was apprenticed to the firm of Rush Endacott & Rush in Tulsa, Oklahoma. At fourteen his first house was built. By his early twenties the quality of his work was recognized by Louis Sullivan and Frank Lloyd Wright, two of the great names of American architecture. Both Sullivan and Wright advised Goff not to seek formal education, which he never did. Yet in 1947 he was offered a teaching position at the University of Oklahoma, and the following year he became the chairman of its School of Architecture. He held this position until1956, at which time local politics forced his resignation. Goff spent the rest of his life in private practice and in lecturing to design schools around the world. Though Goff's tenure of nine years at the University of Oklahoma was short, during this time he gained an international reputation both as a master architect and a master teacher. Goff's school offered an alternative to the prevailing doctrinaire programs of Mies van der Rohe and Wright. According to one former student, the school's purpose was to help in ". . . the discovery of what made each design challenge unique and befitting our most creative response." Recently the works of Goff and his former students have been recognized as constituting a distinct, indigenous architectural movement termed: *The American School*.

Donald Schön, author of *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1987), has suggested that the architectural design studio could serve as an educational model for teaching artistry in unrelated professions. Schön further suggests that there will be a growing need for pactitioners to possess a type of artistry, which he terms "reflection-in-action", that will enable the practitioner to devise new strategies in dealing with future unique situations. This study retrospectively examines the design practicum created by Bruce Goff at the University of Oklahoma. The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which his methods constituted a "reflective practicum" as described by Schön and to add to the body of knowledge concerning "coaching" methods.

The approach to this study was to conduct in-depth interviews with Goff's colleagues and successful former students. The pattern of questioning attempted to determine the following: the form of the reflective practicum; the type of projects presented the students and how they were used; what kinds and levels of reflection were encouraged; what was the relation of the reflective practicum to later professional practice; and what were the espoused theories of the school and how do they now relate to the "theories-in-use"(*Schön, 1987*) possessed by the former students. The participants were also encouraged to relate anecdotal episodes that they deemed significant.

Preliminary analysis of data indicated the following. Goff's practicum was highly reflective in method and was successfull in affecting the performance and attitudes of the students. Goff's success appeared to be attributable to a combination of these factors: (1), the students' awareness and acceptance of his fundamental competence and understanding of the subject; (2), Goff's ability to verbally express his theories, or "vocabulary", of design, thereby giving the students a sense of direction and a means of evaluating their performance; (3), the use of analogy to enhance the understanding of his theories; (4), the effective use of lecture and demonstration as supplements to the primary studio format; and (5), his "captivating humility" in his relationship with the students and his consistently positive approach to the critique of their work.

Further indications are that Goff placed extreme value on searching for unique solutions to aesthetic problems in order to create what he termed "pure architecture". Perhaps due to his persuasiveness within the reflective practicum medium, some students became followers of Goff's philosophy. They adopted a kind of reflective thinking in which the "conversations" that a designer has with a problem take place within a virtual world purposefully stripped of experiencial meaning. Other former students did not totally accept Goff's fundamental values, yet made use of his strategies and techniques.

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RESIDENTIAL HOMES FOR THE ELDERLY ON THE COLLEGE CAMPUS: WHO BENEFITS MOST?

With an aging population, higher education has had to look to non-traditional populations for students and for income. The elderly have been one such non-traditional population. Elderhostel programs and the like have gained much prominence in the past few years. But now something even more innovative and interesting has sprung up--residential homes for the elderly on the college campus. This addition to the campus raises some interesting questions--who will benefit most from their presence--the residents, the students, or the administration?

One such residential center is being built currently on the campus of a small private school in the Midwest. This study will examine the plans and progress of this project. Indepth interviews with key administrators will find out how the program will be run, and will assess perceptions of benefits: to the elderly, to the students, and to the institution. The study will provide baseline data for subsequent investigations/examinations of students and residents. Data could be used to generate research questions and hypotheses for larger scale quantitative studies.

Three to five posters will display plans for construction and development, and perceived benefits to the elderly, the students, and the institution.